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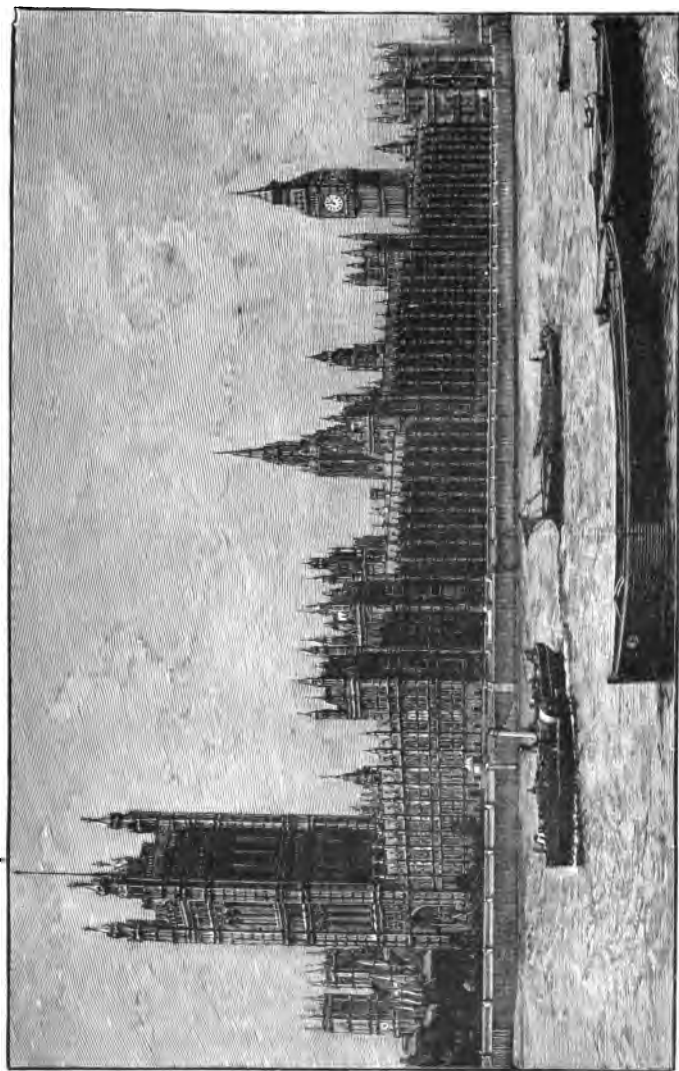
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AN ELEMENTARY HISTORY OF ENGLAND



The New Houses of Parliament; designed by Barry, opened 1852.

AN ELEMENTARY
HISTORY OF ENGLAND

WITH ILLUSTRATIONS, TABLES, MAPS,
AND PLANS

BY

T. F. TOUT, M.A.

PROFESSOR OF MEDIÆVAL AND MODERN HISTORY
IN THE UNIVERSITY OF MANCHESTER

AND

JAMES SULLIVAN, PH.D.

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P R E F A C E

THE present work is not meant absolutely for beginners. The writers are convinced that the best way of kindling the first interest in history in young children is by the oral narration of picturesque stories and biographies. For this stage no text-book seems necessary or even desirable. But as children grow a little older there is a danger in relying altogether on detached incidents and episodes. It is almost equally hazardous to trust exclusively to oral teaching without book. In many cases both these methods tend towards leaving little save a passing impression on the pupil's mind. They are too often destitute of any permanent or tangible result. At first permanent impressions of detail do not much matter, but after a time they are necessary. An elementary text-book may attain the ends desired in two ways. One method is simply to write out at length the same sort of historical details that the teacher has hitherto given *viva voce*. But to follow this plan for the whole of English History needs a volume of considerable dimensions. The writers have therefore deliberately rejected the method of attempting to tell a large number of familiar stories at length. They have preferred to adopt the second possible way. This is to put together a fairly continuous narrative, even at the risk of some parts of it being less attractive than they might have been made by the fuller mode of proceeding. The writers are, however, convinced that the living voice of

the teacher, necessary enough at all stages of historical teaching, is still vitally important for pupils at the stage of those for whom this work is intended. The textbook should supplement, not supersede, the teacher, and the authors have aimed primarily at making the present work a series of pegs, on which the experienced teacher can hang such illustrative matter as seems to him most fitted for his purpose. At the same time, they have aimed at sufficient completeness to enable the teacher who cannot give much time to the subject to use the work without any such amplification. The authors believe that even in the earlier stages of instruction some effort should be made to put before young minds the ideas of continuity and growth which lie at the root of all history. They are sure that this end can only be attained by some form of consecutive narrative. Moreover, a work so designed may, it is believed, be helpful to the teacher by supplying the hard kernel of facts, names, and dates, which young minds readily assimilate, and without which they may be interested, but hardly taught. It is hoped that by careful attention to simplicity and proportion, and by the remorseless omission of much that is commonly found even in the shortest primers of English History, these objects may be in some measure attained without any material sacrifice of picturesque interest.

Of recent years there has been a growing interest in the institutional, social, and industrial life of the people. It has been felt by historians, and rightly, that such matters are of more importance than petty anecdotes in the lives of kings and queens. In answer to the growing demand for such topics, the authors have felt called upon to devote a larger proportion of the text to insti-

tutional, social, and industrial conditions than is usual in most text-books of this nature.

There has been a tendency of late on the part of our text-book writers, especially the more scholarly of them, to fill their books, even for the elementary schools, with bibliographies of books of such a difficult nature as to be read only by grown people. It has been the object of the authors of this book to put under the head of "Topics" at the end of each chapter a list of easy fiction. This will be the only kind of reading the pupils can do, if they have any time to do reading at all. Even some of this fiction will prove difficult for the average pupil, but it is put in with the hope of training a few to read some of the best historical fiction.

It is not to our purpose to enter into a defence of this kind of material for reading. We know that a great deal of it is poor and deserves the title of "unhistorical fiction," but it is better to have children read even this than to read nothing at all.

It is impossible for a pupil of twelve to do anything more than struggle through such books as the "Epochs" and "Twelve English Statesmen" series. Even when such reading is done it is of very doubtful value. Accordingly, such books have been set down under the heading of "Books for Teachers."

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS

TEACHERS would do well to have at their disposal in the class-room the following books :—

Acland and Ransome, *A Handbook of English Political History*.
Bates and Coman, *English History Told by English Poets*.
Cheyney, E. P., *Industrial and Social History of England*.
Colby, C. W., *Selections from the Sources of English History*.
Feilden, H., *A Short Constitutional History of England*.
Gardiner, S. R., *A Student's History of England*.
Gee and Hardy, *Documents Illustrative of English Church History*.
Hill, Mabel, *Liberty Documents*.
Powell, F. Y., and Tout, T. F., *History of England*.
Tout, T. F., *Short Analysis of English History*.

Ample information for further reading by the teacher may be found in the bibliographies of the above books and in the following :—

Bourne, H. E., *The Teaching of History and Civics*.
Committee of the New England History Teachers' Association, *Historical Sources in Schools*.
Gardiner and Mullinger, *Introduction to English History*.
Gross, C., *The Sources and Literature of English History*.

Under "Topics" the list of *suggestive* questions does not pretend to be exhaustive. The teacher may work out others along the same line. It was not thought necessary by the authors to put down such questions as : "Who was Cæsar," etc., but rather only such questions as would lead the pupil to use his reason.

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LIST OF SOME OF THE IMPORTANT DATES IN ENGLISH HISTORY

DATE

- B.C. 55.** Julius Cæsar invades Britain.
A.D. 410. The Romans leave Britain.
449. Landing of Hengist and Horsa.
597. Landing of St. Augustine.
839. Death of Egbert, King of Wessex.
878. Treaty of Chippenham.
899. Death of Alfred.
975. Death of Edgar.
1017. Accession of Cnut.
1066. The Norman Conquest.
1154. Accession of Henry II.
1170. Murder of Thomas Becket.
1189. The Third Crusade.
1215. Magna Carta.
1258. Provisions of Oxford.
1265. Montfort's Parliament and Battle of Evesham.
1282. Edward I.'s Conquest of Wales.
1297. Confirmation of the Charters.
1298. Battle of Falkirk.
1314. Battle of Bannockburn.
1346. Battle of Crecy.
1356. Battle of Poitiers.
1381. The Peasants' Revolt.
1399. The Deposition of Richard II.
1415. Battle of Agincourt.
1453. Loss of the English King's Lands in France.
1455. Beginning of the Wars of the Roses.
1461. Battle of Towton.
1485. Battle of Bosworth.
1513. Battle of Flodden.
1529. Fall of Wolsey.
1534. Henry VIII. passes the Act of Supremacy.
1536. Suppression of the Smaller Monasteries.
1549. Somerset introduces the English Prayer-book.
1553. Failure of Lady Jane Grey.
1558. Elizabeth restores Protestantism.
1577. Drake begins his Voyage round the World.
1587. Execution of Mary Queen of Scots.
1588. Defeat of the Spanish Armada.
1603. Union of the English and Scottish Crowns.

List of Some Important Dates

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DATE

- 1607. Settlement of Virginia.
- 1628. The Petition of Right.
- 1640. Meeting of the Long Parliament.
- 1642. Beginning of the Great Civil War.
- 1645. Battle of Naseby.
- 1649. Establishment of the Commonwealth.
- 1653. Oliver Cromwell made Protector.
- 1660. Restoration of Charles II.
- 1678. The Popish Plot.
- 1685. Monmouth's Rebellion.
- 1689. The Revolution.
- 1690. Battle of the Boyne.
- 1704. Battle of Blenheim.
- 1707. Union of England and Scotland.
- 1713. Peace of Utrecht.
- 1715. The Jacobite Revolt.
- 1720. The South Sea Bubble.
- 1742. Fall of Walpole.
- 1746. Battle of Culloden.
- 1756. Beginning of Seven Years' War.
- 1757. Pitt becomes Prime Minister.
- 1770. Lord North becomes Prime Minister.
- 1775. Beginning of the American War.
- 1783. Independence of America acknowledged.
- 1783. The Younger Pitt becomes Prime Minister.
- 1789. Beginning of the French Revolution.
- 1793. England goes to war against France.
- 1800. Union of Great Britain and Ireland.
- 1805. Battle of Trafalgar.
- 1808. Beginning of Peninsular War.
- 1815. Battle of Waterloo.
- 1829. Catholic Emancipation granted.
- 1832. The First Reform Bill.
- 1841. Peel's Ministry begins.
- 1846. Corn Laws abolished.
- 1854. Crimean War begins.
- 1865. Death of Palmerston.
- 1884. The Third Reform Act.
- 1899. Beginning of the Boer War.
- 1901. Death of Queen Victoria.
- 1901. Accession of Edward VII.
- 1902. End of the Boer War.



County Map of Modern England and Wales

HISTORY OF ENGLAND

PART I. — EARLY ENGLAND. To 1066

CHAPTER I

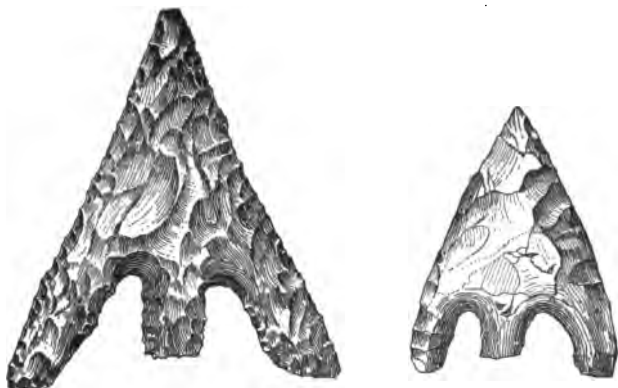
The Britons and the Romans down to 410

1. History is the subject that tells us what has happened to a country or a people in the past. This little book aims at telling the history of the British Islands. These islands consist of an island called *Great Britain*, now divided into England, Scotland, and Wales, and a smaller island situated to the west of it, called *Ireland*. Two thousand years ago, however, things were very different in Britain from what they are now. There was as yet no England, for the English people, who gave England her name, had not yet crossed the seas from their old homes, which were in Germany. Southern Britain was inhabited by a people called the *Britons*, from whom the island took its name of Britain. Yet these Britons were not the first people who lived in the island. Before they came to the land several other races of men had dwelt in it. We know little about these oldest inhabitants. We should not know that they ever existed had not their old burial-places been dug up from time to time, and bones, tools, and weapons been found. For a long

The British Islands in the earliest times.

2 The Britons and the Romans down to 410

time these people did not know the use of metals. They made tools and weapons out of flint-stones, cleverly cut



Flint Arrow-heads.

and sharpened. At last, however, they found out how to use bronze and iron. Then they gave up their rough flint implements, and fashioned metal ones instead.



A British Bronze Helmet.

A Bronze Bowl.

(From the British Museum.)

2. We know much more about the Britons than about those who had dwelt in the land before their coming.

The Britons were a tall, fair-haired race, and very brave, strong, and active. Though fierce and savage, they were civilized enough to know how to make iron swords to fight with, and gold bracelets with which to adorn themselves. Their descendants still live in the land, though they are not now called the Britons, but the *Welsh*. The Britons spoke a language which is an older form of the Welsh language, which is still the mother-tongue of Welshmen.

The
Britons.

3. The Britons did not dwell in every part of Britain. In the extreme North, in what are now called the *Highlands of Scotland*, there lived a fiercer and more warlike race called the *Picts*. Moreover, in Ireland there lived a race called the *Scots*. Some of these Scots afterwards crossed over from Ireland to Northern Britain, and gave that coun-

The Picts
and Scots.



Bronze Caldron found in Ireland.

try the new name of *Scotland*, or land of the Scots. Gradually the Picts became mixed up with the Scots, so that the descendants of both Picts and Scots came to be called the Scots. Then the Scots who were left in Ireland ceased to be called Scots, and were named the Irish. Britons, Scots, and Irish were not, however, very different from each other in their habits and speech. All

4 The Britons and the Romans down to 410

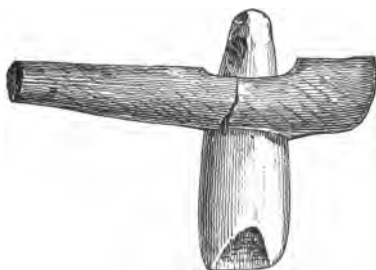
three belonged to a single great family of nations called the *Celts*. The languages spoken by the Irish and Scots are still used by some of their descendants, both in the mountains of Northern Scotland and in Ireland.

4. There dwelt in other lands more civilized people than the Britons. Two thousand years ago the *Romans* were the foremost among civilized nations. The Romans took their name from the city of *Rome* in Italy. At first they only ruled over their own city, but they were so brave and wise that they conquered many lands, and at last won *Gaul*, the country now called France. The Ro-

Julius
Cæsar
and the
Romans.



1



2

Flint Implements.

1. A Hafted Hatchet found in the Solway Moss.
 2. Axe found near Egretton in Cumberland, with wooden handle well preserved.
- (From Evans' "Ancient Stone Implements.")

man general who conquered Gaul was *Caius Julius Cæsar*, who was the most famous of all the Romans. After defeating the Gauls, Cæsar led a small army to Britain. This happened fifty-five years before the birth of Christ. The Britons fought so bravely against Cæsar that he was soon forced to

go away. Next year, however, he went back with more soldiers, and this time he managed to defeat the Britons. Cæsar did not, however, stay long in the country. He

was content to make the Britons pay a sort of tax called *tribute* to the Romans. This was taken as a sign that the Britons were the servants of the Romans. Then Cæsar went home, and for nearly a hundred years Britain was left to itself.



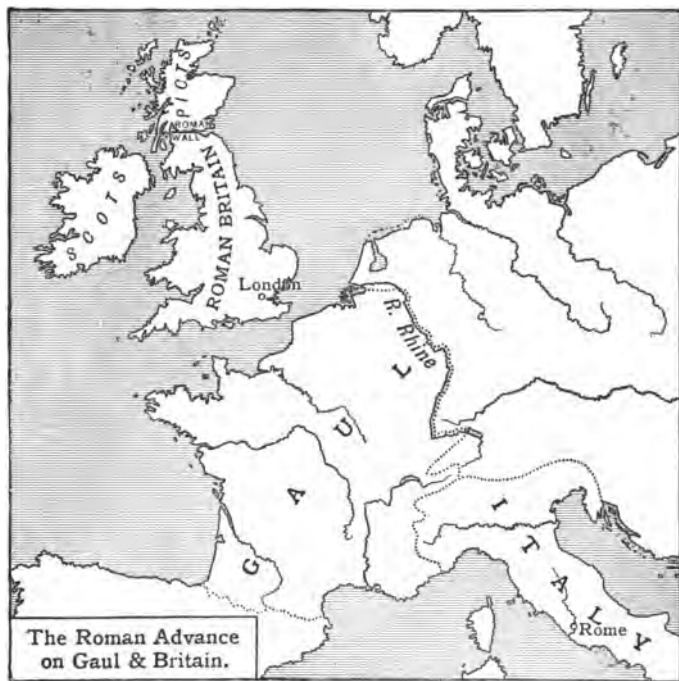
Bust of Julius Cæsar (Naples).

5. It was forty-three years after the birth of Christ when the Romans at last determined to conquer Britain. It was, however, a slow matter. The Britons fought bravely, and, even after they had been conquered, they were continually rebelling and giving the Romans a great deal of

The
Roman
Conquest
of South
Britain.

6 The Britons and the Romans down to 410

trouble. So slow was the Romans' progress that they contented themselves with conquering the South. They gave up any attempt to conquer the Picts and Scots who lived among the mountains of the extreme north. But before long Picts and Scots became so troublesome to the Romans, through constantly attacking them, that



the Romans built a wall between the Firths of Forth and Clyde to separate their lands from those beyond their power. South of this wall they set up what was called the Roman Province of Britain. This took in all the districts now called England and Wales, and a part of what is now called Southern Scotland. None of these names, however, had as yet come into use.

6. Roman rule in Southern Britain lasted for more than three hundred years. The Romans brought in peace, law, and good order. They built cities, fortresses, and country houses, and made a large number of good roads, paved with stone. They encouraged trade, and taught some of the Britons to study the *Latin*, or Roman, language. During this time the Britons gave up the worship of idols and adopted the faith of Christ. Some of them were so zealous for their new religion that they went out as missionaries to remote lands where Christianity was as yet unknown. It was through the efforts of these British teachers that the people dwelling in Ireland first became Christians.

7. Grave trouble now fell upon the Romans. Their Empire was overrun by fierce German tribes, who took up their abode in the Roman Empire and forced the proud Romans to obey

Roman rule
in South
Britain.



A Roman Soldier.

8 The Britons and the Romans down to 410

them. It became impossible for the Romans to defend any longer a distant land like Britain. In 410 they left the island altogether.

Summary. Britain an island. Origin of the name Britain. Character of the early inhabitants. Cæsar's two visits. The Roman Conquest. Christianity introduced. The Romans leave.

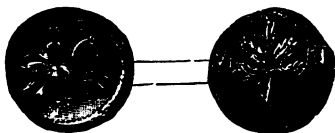
Topics and Supplementary Reading. Why was it hard to conquer Britain? Why did the Romans wish to conquer it? Was Roman rule a good thing for Britain? Why did the Romans leave?

The Roman Invasions: Henty, G. A., *Beric, the Briton*.

The Britons: Church, A. J., *The Story of Early Britain*.

The Departure of the Romans: Church, A. J., *The Count of the Saxon Shore*.

Books for Teachers. Windle, B. C. A., *Life in Early Britain*; Scarth, H. M., *Roman Britain*.



A Gold Coin of a British Chief. About A.D. 43.

CHAPTER II

How the English came to Britain, 410-597

1. After the withdrawal of the Romans, the Britons had to govern their country as best they could. But they began at once to quarrel among themselves, and split up into many little tribes. The Britons driven into the West. A new trouble soon came upon them. Like the Romans, they were attacked by barbarous invaders. For a time they struggled courageously against these enemies. But the new-comers were even braver than the Britons and a good deal more persevering. Gradually they drove the Britons out of all the southern and eastern parts of their land, and forced them to take refuge amidst the mountains of the West.

2. The largest district in which the Britons were still able to hold their own is that now called *Wales*. The Welsh are the direct descendants of the ancient Britons. Their language is sprung Who the Welsh are. from the old British speech, and their religion has continually been that same Christian faith which their forefathers first learned from the Romans. Their name of Welsh was that given them by the new-comers who had supplanted them.

3. The new-comers to Britain were a German tribe called the *Angles*, or *English*. Before they went to Britain they lived in northern Germany, on the shores of the North Sea. From them the southern and eastern parts of Britain got the The coming of the English. name of *England*, that is to say, the land of the English. Their language was called English also, and gradually it

quite drove out both Welsh and Latin from the parts of the island which the English had conquered. The English spoken by these new invaders was very different from the English which is used nowadays. All languages are constantly changing, and English has changed more than most. We are not able to read or understand the English spoken by these invaders, unless we learn it like a foreign tongue. Nevertheless, it remains the same tongue, and has always had the same name.

4. There were three chief tribes or divisions among the English who came to Britain. These were the

The chief divisions among the English. *Jutes*, the *Angles*, and the *Saxons*. They were not, like the English of the present day, ruled by a single king. They were split up

into a great many little states, each of which had a king of its own. This had been the case with the English when they lived in Germany, and this system still went on when they took up their abode in England. Some of these kingdoms were formed by each of the three divisions of the English race. The least important

and smallest of these three branches were the **The Jutes.**

Jutes. Their chief settlement was the kingdom of *Kent*, a district much the same as modern Kent. This was the first English settlement to be made. The *Jutes* came in 449, and the first English kings of Kent were the brothers *Hengist* and *Horsa*. The other parts of the south of England were settled by the second of

the two great divisions of the English people,

The Saxons. the *Saxons*. The *Saxons* set up the kingdoms of *Essex*, *Sussex*, *Wessex*, and others. These names mean the land of the East Saxons, South Saxons, and the West Saxons. Of these, *Wessex*, or the land of the West Saxons, became much the largest and most important.

5. The third branch of the English were the *Angles*. The *Angles* conquered northern, central, and eastern

England, where they established three chief kingdoms. The most northerly of these was *Northumbria*, or North-umberland, that is, the land north of the river Humber. There was an eastern king-
The Angles.
dom called *East Anglia*, which took in Norfolk and Suffolk. The middle Anglian kingdom was called *Mercia*, which means the *March* or boundary between



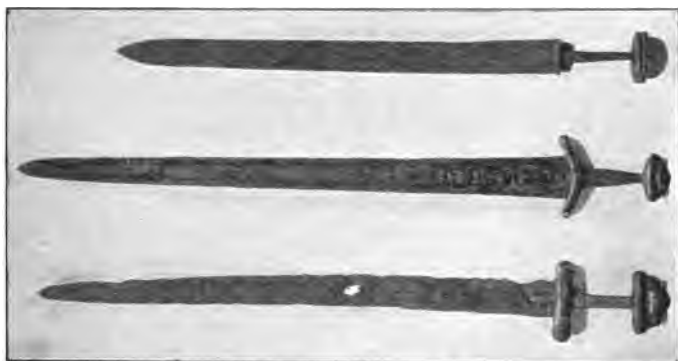
The old Homes of the English.

the English and the Welsh. The above-mentioned seven kingdoms were not all those set up by the English invaders, but they were the most important of them and the ones that lasted longest.

6. It took about a hundred and fifty years for all these changes to take place. But at last the English ceased to swarm over the North Sea to Britain. There

was still, however, a great deal of fighting all over the country. Not only were the English always waging war against the Welsh, but both Welsh and English fought a great deal among themselves. It was lucky for the Welsh that the English did not agree with each other. If the English had kept together they would probably have driven the Welsh out of the island altogether. As it was,

The fighting
between the
English
kingdoms.



Weapons of the Anglo-Saxon Period.

(British Museum.)

however, they failed to make such great progress against them as they might have made. Yet the English gradually conquered the lands held by the Welsh, in spite of the heroic resistance of King Arthur, that brave king of the Welsh about whom history has told us so little, and legend so much. Some hundred years after this the only people called the Welsh were those who lived in the modern Wales.

7. The three English kingdoms that profited most by the conquests of Welsh land soon proved to be the greatest and strongest of all the English kingdoms. These were Northumbria, Wessex, and Mercia. Mean-

while, the different English kings were, as we have seen, fighting as fiercely against each other as they fought against the Welsh. The result of these wars was that the stronger kings conquered the weaker kings. Thus it followed that the number of states in England was constantly getting smaller. At last there were only four kingdoms of any importance left. We have already spoken of three of these four, namely, Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex, all of which added to their power by conquering English as well as Welsh lands. The fourth kingdom worth remembering was Kent. This was not because Kent was very powerful in itself, but because it was to Kent that there now came the preachers of the faith of Christ.

The four
chief English
kingdoms.

Summary. The Britons quarrel among themselves. The Jutes, Angles, and Saxons come over and drive the Britons into the West of England. Four chief English kingdoms established.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Why did the Jutes, Angles, and Saxons come to Britain? Compare their reasons for coming with those of the Romans.

King Arthur: Bulfinch, T., *Age of Chivalry*; Church, A. J., *Heroes of Chivalry and Romance*; Lanier, S., *The Boy's King Arthur*; Lanier, S., *Mabinogion*; Pyle, H., *The Story of King Arthur and his Knights*.

Hengist and Horsa: Crake, A. D., *Stories from Old English History*.

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Books for Teachers. Green, J. R., *The Making of England*; Freeman, E. A., *Old English History*.

CHAPTER III

How the English became Christians, 597-664

1. The English invaders of Britain were heathens, worshipping many gods. As they drove the Welsh into the West, they stamped out the Christian faith in all the districts which they conquered. There was little chance of the English learning about Christianity from the Britons. The two nations hated each other so much that it was not likely, either that the Welsh would wish to teach the English their religion, or that the English would be willing to listen to anything the Welsh had to tell them. Yet, so long as the English still worshipped their cruel heathen gods, they could not understand the gentler ways of civilized life.

The religion
of the old
English.

2. Rome still held the chief place in the civilized world. Though the Roman Empire had decayed, Rome still ruled the minds of men through the Roman bishop. The Bishop of Rome was called the *Pope*, — that is, the father. He was believed to be the greatest of all bishops, and was the head of the Christian Church. It now happened that, about a hundred and fifty years after the English began to settle in Britain, a very good and wise man called *Gregory the Great* became Pope, or Bishop of Rome. Long before he had become Pope he had greatly admired some fair-haired English slave-children standing for sale in the market at Rome. He asked to what nation they belonged, and was told they were Angles.

Pope Gregory
and the
English
heathens.

"They are not Angles," said he: "they have the faces of angels." He then asked what was the name of their king, and was told he was a heathen called Alle. "Then," said Gregory, "shall Alleluia be sung in Alle's land." For a time Gregory wished to go himself as a missionary to preach the gospel to the heathen English; but when he was made Pope he had too much to do at Rome to be able to carry out his wish. Nevertheless, he did not forget the English slave-boys, and at last sent *Augustine* as a missionary to preach the faith of Christ to the heathen English.

3. In 597 Augustine landed in Kent. Now, it happened that Kent was ruled in those days by a king called *Ethelbert*, the most famous of all the kings of the Kentishmen. *Ethelbert* gave Augustine a cordial welcome, and permitted him to preach the gospel to his subjects. Before long *Ethelbert* himself and most of his people were baptized into the new faith. Augustine was made Archbishop of all the English Church. He took up his abode at Canterbury, the town in which the kings of Kent generally lived. Thus he became the first Archbishop of Canterbury.

4. The conversion of Kent was the beginning of the conversion of all England. First, the little neighboring kingdom of Essex was won over to the new faith, and a bishopric set up for it at London, which was already the most important trading town in Britain. And after thirty years, *Ethelbert's* son-in-law *Edwin*, King of the Northumbrians, was baptized by *Paulinus*, the chaplain of his Kentish wife. Thereupon *Paulinus* became the first Archbishop of York. And the conversion of *Edwin* was the more important, since he ruled over a much greater kingdom than the little realm of Kent. The conversion of *Edwin* took place in 627.

Mission of
Augustine
to Kent.

Paulinus is
sent to
Northumbria.

5. Not all the English were of the same mind. The fiercer among them despised the Christians because their religion taught them to be merciful and humble. They preferred the heathen gods, who were supposed to be as cruel as the English warriors themselves. Thus the old faith died hard. Edwin himself was slain in battle by a heathen king, and there were many years of struggle before the Christian faith was firmly established all over England.

The fight between the Christians and the heathens.

6. The hardest struggle was in the North; and here the Christians might well have been beaten, but that the Irish Scots sent missionaries to the Northumbrians in the dark days that followed the slaying of Edwin. The chief of these was *Aidan*, who had been brought up in the little island of *Iona*, off the west coast of Scotland, which was the most famous centre of religion and learning in the land of the Scots. Aidan became bishop of the Northumbrians, and chose as his abode the island of *Lindisfarne* off the Northumbrian coast, which reminded him of his desolate old home. Thus was Christianity firmly established in the North. The other kingdoms learned Christianity one after the other. At last, after a sixty years' struggle, Pope Gregory's hopes were fulfilled, and all the English became Christians. When, however, this was brought about, the good Pope and his fellow-workers had long been dead.

Aidan and the conversion of the North.

Summary. The English heathens. Pope Gregory sends St. Augustine to convert them to Christianity. Kent converted; then Northumbria.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Find out after whom the days of our week are named. (Consult the dictionary.) What does this fact tell you about the religion of the English? Compare their religion with that of the Romans.

St. Augustine's Mission: Holt, E. S., *Imogene*.

18 How the English became Christians

Conversion of the North : Kingsley, C., *The Hermits*.

Ethelbert : Mercier, Anne, *By the King and Queen*.

Edwin : Gordon, W. J., *The King's Thane*.

Books for Teachers. (See Chapter II. of this book.) Cutts,
E. L., *Augustine*.



A Gold Coin of the Emperor Severus, struck A.D. 201.

CHAPTER IV

The Union of England and the Coming of the Danes, 664-899

1. The English were now united in the same religion. Not very long afterwards they became united under a single king. We have seen how the old English kings were always fighting with one another, and how the stronger ones were always conquering the weaker rulers. But these conquests did not generally last very long. Sometimes one king, sometimes another, gained the upper hand. At one time the strongest kings were the kings of the Northumbrians. Then came the turn of the kings of the Mercians. But the Mercian power passed away like that of the Northumbrians. At last the southern kingdom of the West Saxons won for itself the position of leadership.

How Eng-
land became
united under
one church
and one king.

2. Wessex became the chief English state in the days when *Egbert* was King of the West Saxons. But though Egbert had forced all the other kings to recognize that he was the strongest of the rulers of England, he was not King of all the English in the way that Edward VII. is now ruler of all the land. There were still many separate kingdoms, each with its own king, and managing its own affairs. And Egbert was not called King of all the English, but only King of the West Saxons and *overlord* of all England. But the power which he established over the other English kings proved a lasting one, and gradually the

Egbert of
Wessex.

descendants of Egbert became kings of all the land. The royal house of Wessex became the royal house of England, and the blood of Egbert still runs in the veins of Edward VII.

3. Egbert was a strong king, and maintained peace. But after his death in 839, things went badly for Wessex, and even in his lifetime a new race of invaders came from beyond the sea and inflicted untold misery upon the English. These people were the *Danes* and *Norsemen*, who came from Denmark and Norway. Like the English when they



The old Homes of the Norsemen.

had first crossed over into Britain, the Danes were very brave and hardy, but very fierce and cruel. At first they came simply to rob. Every summer they sailed in their long low ships to the English coast, and when winter came, they went home to the north to revel on the plunder that they had collected.

Before long they found out that England was a pleasanter place to live in than their own country. Then they strove, like the English before them, to make new homes for themselves in Britain.

4. Egbert himself could not drive the Danes away, and his son and grandsons were still less able to hold their own against them. The Danes conquered much of northern and eastern England, and in 871 began to attack Wessex. Luckily, at this moment the best of Egbert's grandsons

**The Danes
attack
Wessex.**

had just mounted the throne. This was *Alfred*, the greatest of all the early kings.

5. At first the Danes were too strong for Alfred. He was forced to take refuge in the little island of *Athelney* in the midst of the marshes of Somerset. But he soon came out of his hiding-place. He won a great victory over the Danes, and forced them to make treaties with him.

Alfred and
the Danes.



Remains of a Scandinavian Ship.

(Now in the University at Christiania.)

6. The most famous of these treaties was the *Treaty of Chippenham* of 878. By it Alfred agreed to divide England with the Danes. The Danes took northern and eastern England, and ruled it as they pleased. This district was now called the *Dane law*, that is, the country in which the Danish law prevailed. But there was no great difference between the English and Danes, and the Danes soon began to

The Treaty
of Chippen-
ham.

22 Union of England and Coming of the Danes [604-

learn the English tongue and customs. The greatest difference at first had been that the Danes were heathens, while the English were Christians. But Alfred persuaded them to become Christians.

The Dane law.

When the Danes got used to their new religion, they became very much like the English, except that they still remained somewhat stronger and braver.



Old English Glass and Pottery.

7. The Danes did one good thing for Alfred. They had settled in Northumbria, northern Mercia, and East Anglia, and had destroyed the old lines of kings in those districts. And there were so many little Danish states set up in the Dane

How Alfred became the chief king in England.

law that not one of them could be very powerful. Hence their princes were soon forced to recognize Alfred as their master. Thus Alfred was able to restore the overlordship of Wessex, which his grandfather had established, and which the Danish invasions had threatened to destroy. Though he never called him-

self more than King of the West Saxons, Alfred was really the first King of all the English.

8. Alfred was as wise in peace as he was brave in war. He took care to ward off future invasions of the Danes by setting up a new and a better army than England had had before. Moreover, he was not content to wait until the Danes landed. He built ships that might go out and attack the Danes on the sea, and thus save England the miseries of invasion. This is the first English navy of which history tells us, and we may therefore look upon Alfred as the founder of England's greatness on the sea.

What Alfred did for the English army and navy.

9. Alfred brought back prosperity to England. He built churches, and trained priests to preach religion to his subjects. He loved learning and the company of learned men. He set up schools, and wrote books in the English tongue instead of the Latin, that they might be more generally understood by his people. He collected the old laws of the English, and added to them some new ones of his own. He was not only wise, but good, and the most precious example that he set to his people was in his pure, noble, and holy life. Though constantly suffering from poor health, he never lost courage and heart in laboring for the good of his kingdom. When he died in 899,¹ England was stronger, better, wiser and more united than he had found it. He was called *Alfred the Great*, and though more than a thousand years have passed away since he died, his name is still held in high honor.

Why Alfred was called Alfred the Great.

Summary. The Church helps to unite England into one kingdom. Egbert and his grandson Alfred have great trouble

¹ Professor W. H. Stevenson has shown that the date of Alfred's death was 899, and not 901 as usually given.

24 Union of England and Coming of the Danes

with Danish invaders, and Alfred has to divide England with them.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Compare the invasion of the Danes with those of the Romans and the Saxons. Was the Danish invasion a good thing for England?

King Alfred: Hughes, T., *Alfred the Great*; Tappan, E. M., *In the Days of Alfred the Great*.

Danish Invasions: Henty, G. A., *The Dragon and the Raven*.

The Danes: Engelbach, A., *The Danes in England*.

Alfred's Boyhood: Fenn, G. M., *The King's Sons*.

Books for Teachers. (See Chapter II.) Green, J. R., *The Conquest of England*; Plummer, A., *Life and Times of Alfred the Great*.



CHAPTER V

From Alfred to Edward the Confessor, 899-1066

1. For more than seventy years after the death of Alfred, the England which he had left united and prosperous continued to flourish. The kings were brave and hard-working, and, though they had plenty of fighting to do, they were generally able to put down their enemies.

How Alfred's successors became Kings of the English and Emperors of Britain.

Alfred's son, *Edward the Elder*, dropped his father's title of King of the West Saxons, and called himself King of the English. Edward died in 925. Before long even the name of King of the English was not grand enough for his successors. They conquered the Dane Law; they subdued the Welsh and the Scots. They began to call themselves Emperors of Britain. In those days the title Emperor was the grandest a man could have, since it had been borne by the Roman Emperors, the lords of all the civilized world.

2. The most famous of the successors of Alfred was his great-grandson, King *Edgar*, who ruled over the English from 959 to 975. His was the only reign in those fierce old days in which

The reign of King Edgar.

England remained long at peace. For this reason men called the king Edgar the Peaceful. Edgar ruled not only over England, but also over the whole of Britain, though the Scotch and the Welsh still had kings of their own. These kings acknowledged Edgar as their overlord. A story is told that during Edgar's reign there was a great gathering of these dependent kings to meet their overlord, Edgar, at Chester. After

they had taken counsel together, it was said that eight kings rowed Edgar in a boat up the river Dee.

3. Edgar's peaceful reign was largely due to his chief minister *Dunstan*, Archbishop of Canterbury. Dunstan was the wisest Englishman of his time, and the first English statesman who was neither a king nor a warrior. He was a pious bishop, who did a great deal for religion, education, and learning. But he was also very anxious to make all the different races who dwelt in England live quietly and on friendly terms with each other. In particular, he tried to keep the Danes, who lived in the Dane law, and the English from quarrelling with each other. Luckily, the two peoples were now so much alike that it was not very hard to make them agree. Thus it was that England remained at peace, thanks to Edgar and Archbishop Dunstan.

Archbishop
Dunstan.

4. Evil times began when Edgar was dead. He left two sons, *Edward* and *Ethelred*. The elder of these succeeded to the throne, but was cruelly murdered after a very short reign. For this reason men called him Edward the Martyr. His brother Ethelred now became king. Ethelred was a bad ruler. He refused to take the advice of the nobles, and was therefore called Ethelred the Unready, a term which at that time meant wanting in counsel. But he was not wise or strong enough to rule properly by himself. Under his weak government the land lost its prosperity, and everywhere fighting and confusion were renewed.

The reigns of
Edward the
Martyr and
Ethelred the
Unready.

5. After a few years of troubles, fresh Danes came from Denmark, and began to plunder the land and destroy the people. Since the days of Alfred the Danish invasions had ceased, and the only Danes that had given trouble had been the Danes dwelling in England. But Ethelred's weak-

The Danes
again invade
England.

ness once more tempted the Danes living in their land to take ship for the island; and now there was no one like Alfred to withstand them.

6. Ethelred was afraid to fight the Danes. He thought it was easier to bribe them to go away peaceably. He therefore raised a tax called *Danegeld*. *Danegeld*, that is, Danes' money, and paid it over to them, hoping that they would go away. Next year they naturally came back again, and wanted more money. The more Ethelred bribed the Danes, the more they came to England to get his treasure.

7. Even Ethelred saw that it was of no use to raise any more *Danegeld*, so he tried another way of getting rid of his enemies. By his orders many of the Danes settled in England were suddenly set upon and murdered. This cruelty only made the Danes in Denmark eager to go once more to England to avenge their slaughtered fellow-countrymen. At last *Swegen*, King of all Denmark, came and conquered England. After that he died; and Ethelred died soon after.

8. There was now more fighting, but soon *Cnut*, *Swegen's* son, made himself King of all England. The English gladly took him as king, since he was a brave and a wise man, who ruled well, and brought back the peace that had been unknown since the death of *Edgar*. Under him England was once more prosperous. Not only did *Cnut* rule the English justly, but he called upon them to help him govern his own kingdoms of Denmark and Norway. *Cnut* was a pious Christian, and eager to make all his subjects more civilized. He knew that the English were better educated and more civilized than the rough Danes and Norwegians. He therefore believed that the English were likely to make the Danes more peaceable and religious. *Cnut* knew that the Danes

*The Danes
conquer
England.*

*Cnut, King
of England
and
Denmark.*

fought better than the English, and his Danish warriors were very useful in keeping England quiet.

9. Cnut died soon, and his two sons were men very different from their father. Both reigned badly and died shortly afterwards. Thereupon the English thought it was time to bring back their old line of kings. They sent to Normandy for *Edward*, the son of Ethelred the Unready, and his Norman wife *Emma*. In 1042 Edward became King of the English, and reigned until 1066. He was a

The reign
of Edward
the
Confessor.



Edward the Confessor as depicted on his Great Seal.

very good and religious man. He was therefore called Edward the Confessor, that is, Edward the Saint. He cared much more for the Church than for the people, and built the famous Westminster Abbey. As he was not fierce or warlike, this good man did not prove such

a useful king as the foreign Cnut. Edward had been brought up in his mother's land of Normandy, and all through his reign showed such love to Normans that he gave them everything that he had to give. Under his weak rule the Norman conquest of England really begins.

Summary. Edgar, the great-grandson of Alfred, increases the power of the king. Dunstan helps him. Edgar's son Ethelred is so weak that the Danes invade England. Cnut of the Danes makes himself king of all England. After his death and the death of his sons, Edward the Confessor, son of Ethelred, is made king.

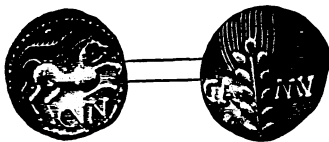
Topics and Supplementary Reading. Why was Cnut's rule better for the English (1) than Ethelred's? (2) than Edward the Confessor's? Why was it that the wisest men of this time were in the Church?

Cnut and Edmund Ironside: Crake, A. D., *Alfgar the Dane*.

Struggles against the Danes: Whistler, C. W., *King Olaf's Kinsman*.

Danish Conquest: Whistler, C. W., *Wulfric, the Weapon Thane*.

Books for Teachers. (See Chapters II. and IV.)



A Gold Coin of a British Chief.

CHAPTER VI

Institutions of Early England

1. In very early times, while the Saxons and Angles were still in Germany, they were in a state of civilization somewhat similar to that of the North American Indians when Columbus discovered America. They were divided into tribes, and over each of these was a chief chosen by the members of the tribe for his bravery in war. In times of peace the chief also acted as judge, but if he proved a poor leader in war or peace, the members of the tribe would replace him with a better man. About the chief were grouped the other warriors of the tribe. Each of the strongest and bravest of them had grouped about him a certain number of men with whom he went on plundering expeditions. It was on expeditions of this sort that the Angles and Saxons came to Britain; and after returning again and again for more booty they finally settled on the island. The leaders of these expeditions, through holding the place of leader so long, came to be looked upon as kings, and, if there was no objection on the part of their followers, their sons were chosen to the same office. However, the Saxons never lost sight of the fact that they had the right to elect and depose their leaders or kings.

2. In their original homes in Germany all the members of a tribe had a share in advising the leader, as well as in electing or deposing him. But the advice of the bravest and the strongest and the oldest naturally carried most weight, and as the years wore on the business of advising the leader

The king.

The Witen-
agemot or
Council.

fell into the hands of these men. In England this body of men came to be called the *Witenagemot*, that is, the *gemot* or meeting of the Wise Men or *Witan*, and the right of all the members of the tribe to share in its counsels was gradually lost sight of. With the growth of population the assembling of all the men of the tribe, or nation as it had now grown to be, became impossible and the business of conducting the government fell entirely into the hands of the king and the *Witan* — the latter assuming the rights of electing and deposing the king, and of making grants of land, together with such other rights as the members of the tribe had originally held.

3. (a) *Methods of Trial*. In early times, when one man injured another, the injured man and his relatives would try to do an equal injury to the guilty man and his family. A *feud* was then said to exist between the families, and this feud sometimes went on until both families were entirely killed off. As men became more civilized the injured man and his family would accept a money payment, or a payment in cattle or goods, for the injury done. This payment was called the *wergeld*, or man-money, and it gradually took the place of the feud because the king and the Church were becoming strong enough to force the wrong-doer to pay, and the injured man to accept this payment.

It was not always possible, however, to tell who committed a crime, for many crimes, such as murder and stealing, were often done in secret. Any man accused of a crime was believed to be guilty, and had to prove himself innocent. He did this by declaring on oath that he was innocent, and by getting a certain number of men to come before the court and swear that they believed he was telling the truth. These men were called *compurgators* and the process was called *compurgation* (cleansing together).

Compurga-
tion.

If the accused could not get the necessary compurgators, or for one reason or another was not allowed to prove his innocence by this method, he had to prove it by the *ordeul*. There were many kinds of ordeals, probably the most common being the trial by *hot water*. **Ordeal.**

By this the accused plunged his arm into scalding water. The arm was then bandaged, and if at the end of three days it was nicely healed, the accused was considered innocent, but if it was festered, he was guilty. To the priests was left the decision as to the condition of the healing, so you may see that it was they who really determined the guilt or innocence of a man. If guilty, the accused had to pay the fine for the crime.

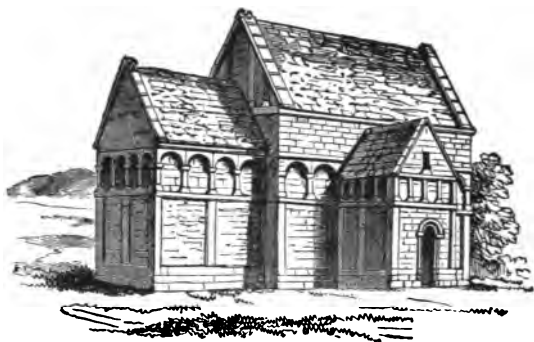
(b) *Courts*. A kingdom was divided into districts called *shires*, the shires into districts called *hundreds*, and the hundreds into districts called *townships*. The assemblies of the citizens of these districts were the courts, and the members of the assemblies acted as judges. When an accused man was brought before them, they did not weigh evidence and pronounce judgment as our courts do. They simply decided which form of trial the accused would have to use to prove his innocence.

The highest court in the land consisted of the king and the Witan, but cases were very seldom taken so high. They were ordinarily decided in the assembly of the hundred (*hundred-moot*), but an appeal could be made to the assembly of the shire (*shire-moot*.) Below the hundred-moot was the town-meeting (*town-moot*), but few if any cases for trial were brought before it.

4. Before coming to Britain the Angles and Saxons believed in many gods such as the Sun, the Moon, Thiu (god of war), Woden (god of all gods), Thor (god of thunder), Freya (goddess of love). So great was their influence on the life of the people that the days of the week were named after them. The Angles and Saxons found that the native Britons

Religion.

had been converted to Christianity from the ancient faith of Druidism. The priests of this religion were called Druids, and a temple of theirs called Stonehenge is still standing. The Angles and Saxons, as we saw,



Saxon Stone Church at Bradford-on-Avon.

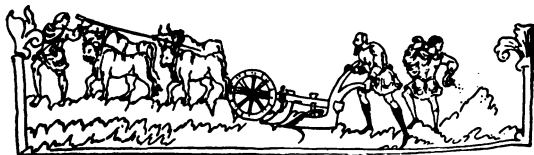
(Showing Saxon style of architecture.)

did not at first adopt Christianity, but when they did and became members of the great Catholic Church, any man who declared himself not a member of that Church was an enemy of God, and to be an enemy of God was as bad as to be an enemy of the king.

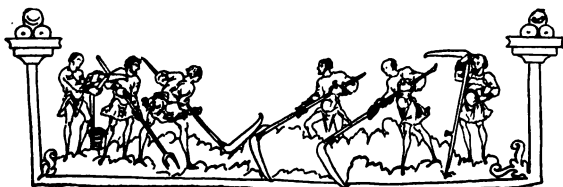
At the head of the Church was the Pope at Rome. He was represented in England by archbishops who had under them bishops, and these in turn had under them priests. These men had charge of churches, large or small, and attended to the religious education of men. Besides these clergymen who were known as the *secular clergy* there were others, principally in Ireland and the north of England, who were known as the *regular clergy* because they lived in monasteries and followed a certain *regula*, or rule. At the head of the monastery was the abbot, and under him were certain other officials and the monks. St. Patrick of Ireland was a monk, and founded the system of monasteries in that country.

5. Among the Angles and Saxons, even before they came to England, there were three classes of people: noble, free, and servile. The last class was increased in number by the enslavement of some of the captive Britons. The land which the Angles and Saxons conquered was taken by certain families, noble or free, who settled down in groups upon

Classes of people.



Ploughing and Sowing.



Mowing.



Threshing and Winnowing.

Country Life in the Eleventh Century.

(From an old manuscript.)

the old Roman estates or *villas* which they found vacant. These they began to cultivate, and as they could raise there all the necessities of life they did not have to go outside of the village to trade. *Agriculture* was the

chief industry and was mainly carried on by the freemen and the servile class. The members of the latter class were of two kinds: the *slaves*, who were sold like cows or horses, and the *serfs*, who were the property of their masters, but were generally sold along with the land. A noble was usually wealthier, more powerful and more influential than the freeman, though the latter by possessing himself of much land might become a member of the nobility. Even members of the servile class could be freed.

6. When the Angles and Saxons first came to England they destroyed most of the Roman walled towns because they did not like to live in them, but preferred to settle in small villages or townships. Some of these were independent of everybody but the king. Others were under the control of some great lord. In the independent town the town-moot or meeting of the freemen chose the town-reeve, an officer corresponding to our mayor, but as the king grew stronger he frequently appointed this officer just as the lords did in the dependent towns which were on their lands.

7. In these early and troublous times there were certain groups of men organized in bodies called *gilds*. Some gilds were for purely religious purposes such as providing for the funeral services and burial of their members, or protecting the widows and orphans; others (*frith-gilds*) were made up of men banded together to see that the peace of the community was not disturbed by wicked men; and still others were for purely social purposes like our clubs. More important than any of these was the *gild-merchant*. This was an organization of the merchants of a town to protect and encourage trade.

Summary. The office of king, at first elective, becomes hereditary. The Witan control the king and have the power of the old tribe. The methods of trial are the compurgation and ordeal and the courts are the Witenagemot, the shire-court, the hundred-court and the town-court. The clergy are divided into regular and secular. The classes are the noble, freeman, serf, and slave. Agriculture on the villa is the main occupation. Independent and dependent towns. Peace-gilds and merchant-gilds.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. What is a monarchy? What body in the United States corresponds to the Witan? Is there any place that you know of where the *feud* still exists? What difference is there between compurgators and the modern *jury*? What did a German think a "festered" hand showed, and why?

Early Government: Kendall, E. K., *Source Book of English History*, pp. 6-11.

Anglo-Saxon Laws: Kendall, E. K., *Source Book of English History*, pp. 17-20; Hughes, T., *Alfred the Great*, ch. vii.

Books for Teachers. (See chapters II., III., IV. of this book.) Allen, Grant, *Anglo-Saxon England*.

PART II. — THE NORMAN KINGS. 1066-1154

CHAPTER VII

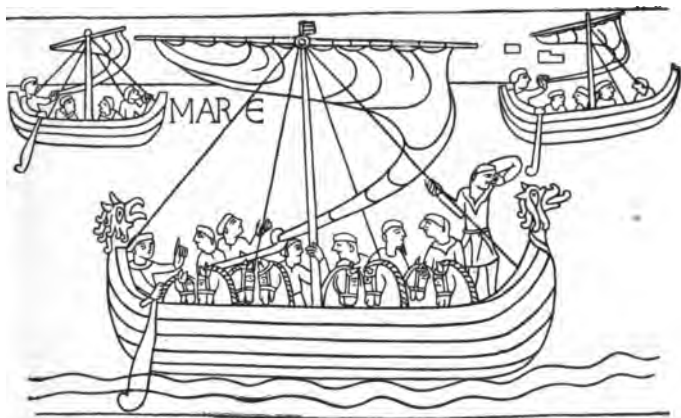
The Norman Conquest, 1066

1. We have learned that Emma, Edward the Confessor's mother, was a *Norman*, and that Edward had been brought up in *Normandy* and loved his mother's countrymen. We must now learn who these Normans were, and where they lived. It is very important to know these things, because all English history after Edward the Confessor's time would have been quite different if he had not given the Normans a chance of establishing themselves in England.

2. The Normans were, to begin with, simply a branch of the Danish or Norse race. They were called Normans or Northmen on the Continent, because they came from the North. About the time when some of these Northmen were plundering and conquering the England of King Alfred, other warriors of the same race were devastating the northern parts of France. At last they conquered a large district in northern France, situated on both banks of the river Seine, and exactly opposite the south coast of England. This land became known as Normandy, or the land of the Normans, and now made a sort of French Dane law. Its capital was the city of *Rouen*, on the Seine. Its ruler was called the Duke of the Normans.

3. The French kings were strong enough to make the Norman dukes recognize them as overlords. But they were not so powerful as the English kings, and were not able to conquer Normandy and rule it, as Alfred's successors had conquered the English Dane law. More than this, the Norman dukes only obeyed the French kings when they chose, and were really quite independent. Just as the

**How the
Normans
became like
Frenchmen.**



Norman Ships.

(From the Bayeux Tapestry.)

Danes in England became like other Englishmen, so the Normans in France became like other Frenchmen. They spoke the French tongue, adopted the French laws and manners, and were only different from other Frenchmen because they were fiercer and more warlike.

4. Edward the Confessor's mother was the daughter of one of the dukes of the Normans, and the reigning duke, whose name was *William*, was Edward's cousin and bosom friend. The result of this was that Edward was always taking William's advice. Moreover, he sent for Normans

**Edward the
Confessor
brings Nor-
mans into
England.**

The American League

THE AMERICAN LEAGUE
 OF FOOTBALL PLAYERS
 AND COACHES
 HAS BEEN ORGANIZED
 TO PROTECT THE INTERESTS
 OF THE PLAYERS AND
 TO SECURE A FAIR
 SHARE OF THE REVENUE
 FROM THE SALE OF
 SEATS AND TICKETS.



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rest of Edward's reign Harold ruled England in the king's name. He governed well and successfully, showing himself to be a brave warrior and a wise statesman.

6. Early in 1066 Edward the Confessor died, and was buried in his new abbey of *Westminster*. He left no children, so that it was uncertain who was to be the next king. Edward himself had wished to be succeeded by his cousin, Duke William. But the English thought that this would not do at all. They chose Earl Harold as their king, though he was not a member of the royal house of Wessex, to which all the earlier kings, save Cnut and his sons, had belonged.

Harold becomes King of the English.

7. Harold soon found it was harder to rule England when he was king than it had been when he was an earl.

Duke William lands in England.

In a few months Duke William claimed the throne, saying that his cousin Edward had promised that he should be the next king. William had gathered together a great army from Normandy and all parts of France, and crossed over the English Channel. He landed at Pevensey, and marched thence to Hastings.

8. Harold was then busy in the North, where he had gone to drive away the King of the Norwegians, who

Harold beats the Norwegians and marches against the Normans.

had landed in Yorkshire a little while before. He had succeeded in beating the Norwegians in battle and in killing their king, whose name was also *Harold*. He then hurried south to fight against William. He took up his position on a hill about seven miles north of Hastings, at the place where the town of Battle now stands. William marched from Hastings to meet him, and, on his reaching the place where Harold was, fought with him a great battle.

9. This is generally called the *Battle of Hastings*. The spot where it fought had as yet no name, and so

men called the battle from the nearest town. This fight near Hastings is perhaps the most important battle in all English history, and we are lucky in having still preserved in the city of *Bayeux*, in Normandy, a long series of pictures in wool-

The
Battle of
Hastings.

work, called the *Bayeux Tapestry*, which was made near the time, and tells us exactly what events led up to the battle and how it was fought. We have given several pictures from this in our illustrations. They make it clear that both the English and the Normans showed wonderful bravery. But English and Norman ways of fighting were different, the difference being in favor of the Normans. The English fought on foot, standing shoulder to shoulder, and wielding spears and axes. The Normans fought on horseback, and charged time after time up the hill against the solid mass of English warriors stationed on its crest. As long as the English

stood together, the Norman horsemen could do them little harm, though their archers slew some of them. At last William ordered his men to pretend to run away. Thereupon the English broke their ranks, and rushed after them. This lost the English the battle. The Normans soon turned, and their cavalry could easily ride down the English infantry, now that the close formation of the English was broken. The result was that

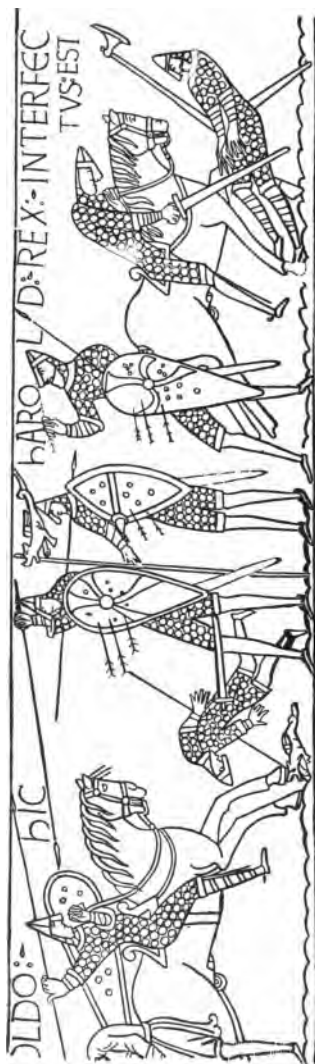


Normandy and Southeast England,
in 1066.



A Scene from the Battle of Hastings. Norman Horsemen attacking English Infantry at the top of the Hill.

(From the Bayeux Tapestry.)



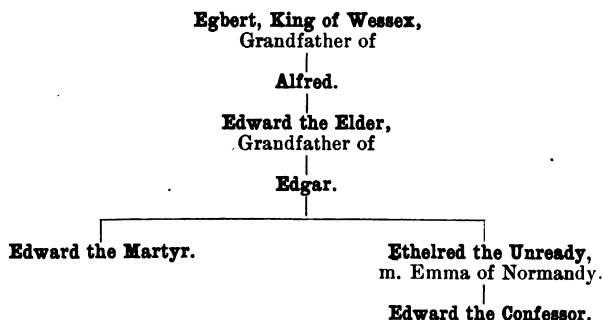
The Death of Harold.

(From the Bayeux Tapestry.)

William won a complete victory. Harold died fighting bravely, with the best of his soldiers. After this success William marched to London, and the English nobles, despairing of further resistance, chose him as their king. On Christmas Day, 1066, William was crowned king in Edward's new Abbey of Westminster. It was a few days less than a year after Edward's body had been buried there.

William
becomes
King of the
English.

THE CHIEF ENGLISH KINGS BEFORE THE NORMAN CONQUEST.



Summary. The Normans settle in northern France. Edward the Confessor asks many of them over to England and grants them favors. Earl Harold drives them out and is chosen King of the English after Edward's death. William, Duke of Normandy, defeats Harold at Hastings and becomes King of the English.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. What body of men chose Harold king? On what kind of ground can cavalry fight best? What invention in modern times has made cavalry less important in war?

The Norman Conquest : Henty, G. H., *Wulf the Saxon*.

Stamford Bridge and Hastings : Lytton, Lord, *Harold*.

Saxon Bravery : Kingsley, C., *Hereward the Wake*.

Picture of the Times : Scott, Sir Walter, *Tales of a Grandfather*.

Book for Teachers. Freeman, E. A., *Short History of the Norman Conquest*.

CHAPTER VIII

The Norman Kings, 1066-1154

1. The first Norman king of the English was called *William the Conqueror*. He was very fond of having his own way, and was very stern and cruel to those who opposed him. But with all his harshness he was not a bad king. He would not allow any one to oppress the English except himself, and the conquered English soon began to look up to him for help against the swarm of greedy Norman soldiers who came over with him. These men had not come to England simply to do their duke's bidding. They expected to be rewarded for helping him to gain the throne, and William paid them for their services by giving them great grants of land which he had taken away from Englishmen who had fought against him. Moreover, William did not trust the English enough to allow them to help him govern the country. There were soon none but Norman earls, great landlords, and bishops. The English lost most of their lands, and were only allowed to go on holding small estates. They were often cruelly treated by their new masters.

2. The Normans kept a firm hold on the lands and places which they had won with their swords. They covered the land with strong castles, grim towers of stone, which it was impossible for the English to capture. We can still see all over the land the ruins of these castles which the Normans built to overawe the English. The most famous of them is the *Tower of London*.

How
William the
Conqueror
dealt with
the English
and the
Normans.

Norman
castles.

3. William soon found that the Norman barons or nobles were not to be trusted. They wanted to have as much power as they could for themselves, and they were very anxious to prevent William from becoming too strong. They were always rising in rebellion against him.

**The revolts
of the Nor-
man Barons.**

4. The Norman barons were much more cruel to the English than the king was, and the English soon discovered that the king was always anxious to protect them against the barons. The result was that when the Norman barons revolted, the English helped the king to put down their rebellions. William rewarded the English for this help by keeping up, as far as he could, their old laws.

**The English
support
William
against the
barons.**

5. By these means William made himself a very powerful king. This was a good thing for England, since in those rough days the only way of keeping peace and order was for the king to be strong enough to make everybody do his will. But the English had to pay heavily for the peace which William gave them. In particular, William forced them to pay very high taxes.

**How Wil-
liam became
a strong
king.**

6. William was anxious to raise as many taxes as he could. He therefore took great pains to find out how much land and property every man possessed. With that object, he ordered a book to be drawn up called the *Domesday Book*, in which was set down how much land there was in England, to what people the land belonged, and how much they were bound to pay the king. The English grumbled a great deal at this. "There was not," they said, "a rood of land, nor an ox, or a cow, or a pig passed by." But we have more reason to be grateful to William than the English of his own day. His *Domesday Book* tells us more about the state of England eight

**The Domes-
day Book.**

hundred years ago than we know about any other country at that period.

7. William had three sons, *Robert*, *William*, and *Henry*. The eldest of these was Robert, and when the Conqueror died, in 1087, Robert became Duke of Normandy. The Norman nobles also wished him to be king over the English. Their reason was that they knew that Robert was weak and lazy, and that, if he were their king, they could do just what they liked. The Conqueror himself felt sure that Robert, as king, would undo all his work. He therefore said, as he lay dying, that he desired William to succeed him. With the help of the English this wish was carried out. The Norman nobles tried more than once to put Robert on the throne; but young William was too clever to allow them to carry out their purpose.

8. *William II.* was a hot-tempered, violent man. Though greedy, brutal, and fierce, he was very strong and cunning. He had red hair, and a fair, florid face. He was therefore called *Rufus*, or the *Red King*. He kept the nobles in order, but he ruled very badly. He specially showed his cruelty by the way in which he robbed the Church. Bishops and priests could not fight as well as barons, so William thought it was easier to misuse them.

9. The Archbishop of Canterbury in William II.'s days was named *Anselm*. He was a very holy man, and was very famous both for the sanctity of his life and for the learned and thoughtful books which he had written. He had not wanted to be archbishop, but the post had been forced upon him. Before long William began to ill-treat him. Though Anselm was a weak old man, he was never afraid to stand up for the rights of the Church or to tell the truth to the king's face. This

The sons of
William the
Conqueror.

The reign of
William
Rufus.

Rufus and
Archbishop
Anselm.

made William so angry that he drove Anselm out of the kingdom.

10. The Normans were very fond of hunting. For the sake of hunting, William the Conqueror had made a great many new *forests*. We call a forest nowadays any large space covered with trees. But in Norman times a forest meant a district in which wild beasts were allowed to roam freely, so that the king and his nobles might hunt them.

Among the new forests set up by William was one still called the *New Forest*, in Hampshire, and many farmers and villagers had been forced to leave their homes in order that the king might chase deer over their lands. One day in 1100 William Rufus set out to hunt in the New Forest. Next morning his body was found there with an arrow shot through the heart. The poor saw in this sudden murder of the wicked king God's judgment on his sins.



Part of Hampshire, showing the New Forest, and the Rufus Stone where William II. is supposed to have been slain.

11. Henry, the youngest son of the Conqueror, was now made King *Henry I.* Once more Robert tried to get the throne for himself, and once more he failed. After a few years Henry defeated his brother in battle, and shut him up in prison for the rest of his life. The English helped Henry against Robert, as they had helped William II. earlier. With their aid, Henry kept the Norman nobles in order. He was as cruel as the Red King; but he was much more prudent. He took care to rule justly, and his subjects called him the *Lion of Righteousness*. Like Rufus, Henry had a dispute with Anselm, but they soon

The reign of Henry I.

made up their quarrel, and became better friends than ever. One very popular thing Henry did was to marry a lady named *Matilda*, daughter of the King of Scotland. Matilda was, through her mother, descended from the old line of kings who had reigned in England before the Norman Conquest. It was through this marriage that the blood of Egbert and Alfred runs in the veins of nearly all English kings down to King Edward VII.

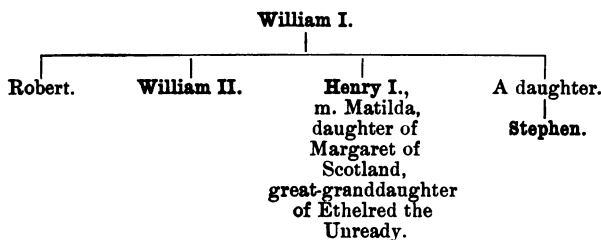
12. Henry I. and Matilda of Scotland had an only son and a daughter. The daughter was called *Matilda*, like her mother. The son was drowned during his father's lifetime. On her brother's death the king persuaded the barons to promise to recognize his daughter Matilda as queen after his death. But it was an unheard-of thing in those days for a woman to rule, and the barons broke the oaths they had taken to Matilda as soon as Henry I. was dead. Instead of her, they chose as their king her cousin *Stephen*, a grandson of William the Conqueror. Stephen was a brave soldier, but too much like Robert of Normandy in disposition to be a good king. The barons soon found that they could do what they liked under such a careless and easy-going ruler as Stephen.

13. After a few years Matilda came to England and claimed her father's throne. A long civil war followed.

The war between Stephen and Matilda. Some of the barons fought for Stephen, and others for Matilda; but most of them cared for neither. Each baron fought for his own interests, and wished to keep up the quarrel of Stephen and Matilda as long as possible, in order that neither should be able to rule with a strong hand. After many years of misery, it was at last agreed that Stephen should reign for the rest of his life, but that on his death Henry of Anjou, Matilda's son, should be the next king. Shortly after this settlement had been made Stephen died, in 1154.

14. Great as were the miseries that England had suffered from the tyranny of the first three Norman kings, it endured far more terrible things during the weak rule of Stephen. The people died of hunger or were tortured to death by robbers. It was said that during Stephen's reign Christ and His Saints slept. It was now clear that the rule of the nobles was much worse than the rule of the Crown, and that the strong rule of the Norman kings was the greatest blessing that the Conquest had given to England.

GENEALOGY OF THE NORMAN KINGS.



Summary. William I. rules harshly, but with some justice towards the English, who support him against the barons. He makes the Domesday Book. William Rufus rules cruelly and drives Anselm from the country. Henry I. rules justly, but after him a civil war breaks out between Stephen and Matilda for possession of the throne.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. What do we have made every ten years that is like the Domesday Book? Why was it necessary for William I. to have the Book made? What does "anarchy" mean?

William I.: Tappan, E. M., *In the Days of William the Conqueror*.
Anselm: Hollis, Gertrude, *In the Days of St. Anselm*.

Outlaws of Stephen's Reign: Chetwode, R. D., *The Knight of the Golden Chain*.

Life of the Times: Yonge, C. M., *The Little Duke*.

Books for Teachers. Freeman, E. A., *William the Conqueror*,
Church, A. J., *St. Anselm*; Jewett, S. O., *Story of the Normans*.

CHAPTER IX

Norman England, 1066-1154

1. Writers of histories used to think that very few changes took place in English life and institutions when the Normans conquered England, but of late years the historians have come more and more to believe that the changes were so many and so abrupt that we can almost think of a red line dividing the institutions of the Saxons from those which were established after the Norman Conquest.

2. William I. had himself chosen king by the Witan, but this was only a matter of form, for he was king by right of conquest. The fact that the Normans had conquered England made the Norman much stronger than the Saxon kings. Instead of asking the consent of the Witan to the making of laws and the imposing of taxes, the Norman kings frequently made the laws and levied the taxes without consulting the Witan at all. Thus the power of the Norman kings was almost absolute, and they did much as they liked.

3. After the Conquest the *Great Council* took the place of the Witan, but had not nearly so much power. It consisted of the great churchmen and nobles, who held large tracts of land as tenants of the king, and met about three times a year. When a king died the council chose the new king, but he was scarcely ever any one but the dead king's eldest son.

4. As the population of England increased there was more business for the king than he could attend to alone. So he had a secretary (chancellor), a treasurer, and a judge with him all the time to help him with his letters, take charge of his money and aid him in giving justice. These three officers with some others were called the king's *privy* or *private council*. This council corresponded in a way to the Cabinet of the President of the United States. It still exists in England, but has many more members than it had in Norman times.

5. The highest court of justice was now no longer the Witan (or Great Council), but the Privy Council of the king. This body followed the king from place to place in order to hear appeals from the lower courts which remained much the same as before the Conquest. The same methods of proving a man's guilt or innocence continued in use, but the Normans added a new method called the *Wager of Battle*. By this method the accuser and the accused, or their champions, fought each other — it being thought at the time that God would have the right man win.

6. The Church organization did not change with the Conquest, but the Norman kings made the Church offices more subordinate to the office of king than under the Saxons. William I., however, did permit the clergy to try their own members for wrong-doing. This privilege caused a great deal of trouble later. In Europe there had been a great deal of trouble between Pope Gregory VII. and Emperor Henry IV. as to whether the popes or the kings should invest a bishop with his office. In England Henry I. settled the difficulty in such a way as to give both pope and king a share in the ceremony.

7. The same classes existed under the Normans as under the Saxons, but we know from Domesday Book

that many Saxon nobles were deprived of their lands and many Saxon freemen reduced to serfs, or *villeins* as the Normans called them. On the other hand by the influence of the Church the condition of the slaves was much improved and many were freed.

Classes of society.



Porchester Church, Hampshire, built about 1135.

(Showing Norman style of architecture.)

8. Even in Saxon times the king had not been entirely strong enough to hold all his people, especially the great lords, in subjection and obedience to him. There had begun to grow up a system by which this might be done, and when the Normans came over they brought a system very

The feudal system.

much like the one growing up in England, only it was more perfect. This is known as the *feudal system*.

It is very difficult to understand, but if you will try to remember a few things about it, that will be enough. In the first place all land was supposed to belong to the king. He let it out to certain men, usually important nobles. These in turn might let out to lesser nobles certain portions of the land given to them. In this way every part of the land was held directly or indirectly from the king. The man who gave out the land was called the *lord* and he who received it was called the *vassal*. Thus one man might be a *vassal* to the king and yet a *lord* to another man. Instead of paying rent or taxes the vassal did *service* for his lord, and made him gifts called *aids*. The service was usually to serve the lord in war and the *aids* were (1) to *ransom* his lord if the latter was captured, (2) to pay the expenses of *knighting* the lord's eldest son, and (3) to contribute to the marriage expenses of the lord's eldest daughter. If the vassal died the vassal's son could only get his land by paying the lord a sum called a *relief*. For all this the lord had to give his vassal protection. There were many other services and dues of one kind or another, but these were the most important. Every man except the king had a lord above him and every lord had usually many vassals. William the Conqueror was so afraid that his nobles would become stronger than he that he would not give them great tracts of land all in one locality, but gave them a small piece in one part of England and a small piece in another part. Then he made all men, even men who were not his vassals, but vassals of the men to whom he had given out land, take an oath of allegiance direct to him. He hoped by this to make every man feel that he owed obedience to the king first of all. Now all this may seem very simple to you, but what is put down here is only the ideal

system. In actual working it was very much more complicated.

9. Above we spoke about "*knighting*" the lord's eldest son. This was the most important part of an institution called *chivalry*. Every boy of noble birth went through a long training to become a knight. When he was seven he was made a *page* about the court of his father's lord and learned polite manners from the ladies, and manly behavior from the lords. When he reached the age of fourteen he became a *squire* and attended the lord upon the field of battle. At the age of twenty-one he was made a *knight* after going through much gorgeous ceremony. He then received his sword and armor and went into battle like the man that he was.

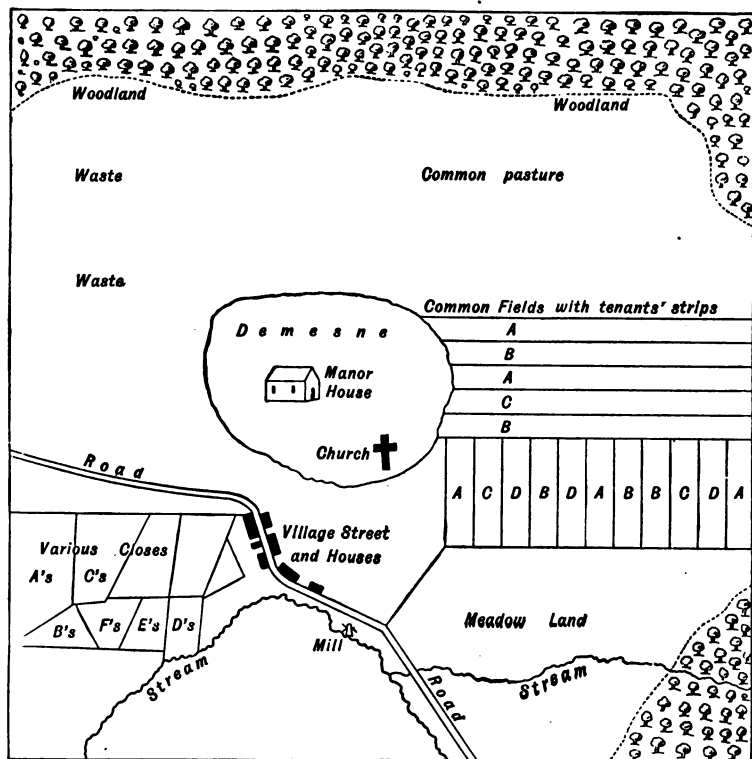
The favorite sport for the knights was a mock battle called a *tournament*. This was held in a great enclosed field called the *lists*. The battle was sometimes between two single knights, or between many knights, an equal number being on each side. Instead of using swords and trying to kill each other they used long wooden lances and tried to unhorse their opponents. He who unhorsed his opponent or broke the most lances in trying to do so was declared the winner.

Chivalry and the tournament kept before men in these very rough times a standard of manly conduct and honor, and a high regard for women.

10. The Normans did not have a dislike for towns and as they built much in stone the towns grew rapidly in size and wealth. So wealthy did some of them grow that they bought their freedom from the control of the king's or lord's officers by paying a certain sum down. The king or the lord then gave them charters guaranteeing them certain rights. In purchasing these charters the towns were much aided by the *merchant-gilds* which had grown wealthy and in many

Towns.

cases controlled the government of the towns. After the Conquest a new form of gild called the *craft-gilds* grew up. These were somewhat similar to our modern trade-



Plan of Manor.

(Reproduced from Gibbins' "Industrial History of England," by permission of Messrs. Methuen & Co.)

unions. They were organizations of the artisans of a town such as weavers, shoemakers, and so forth, made for mutual benefit. They regulated the kind of work done and made rules for the training and entrance of

new members. In time the craft-gilds became very powerful.

11. To a township or village which remained under the control of a lord the Normans gave the name *manor*. The manor was a little world in itself. On ^{The manor.} it lived all classes of people from the lord to the slave. On it were grown all the necessities of life and in the village were to be found the workmen who made clothing to wear and implements to work with. The lord lived in his manor-house. Some slaves were in his service. Villeins of the lord tilled the soil or were employed as artisans. Some few freemen might be tenants on certain portions of land.

Summary. The power of the king increases. The Grand Council takes the place of the Witan, but has less power. The Privy Council takes over some of the duties of the king. The wager of battle is introduced. The dispute with the pope about the office of bishop is settled. Some Saxon nobles lose their lands and some Saxon freemen are made villeins. The feudal system and chivalry are introduced. The towns grow wealthy and the craft-gilds are organized. The Anglo-Saxon township or vill becomes the manor.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Was the wager of battle worse than the ordeal or compurgation? What is a trade-union? What is a charter? Have you ever heard of charters in American history? Were there ever any slaves in the United States?

Chivalry: (See books by Church and Bulfinch in Chap. II.)

Tournament: Scott, Sir W., *Ivanhoe*.

Books for Teachers. (See Preface under Feilden and Cheyney.)

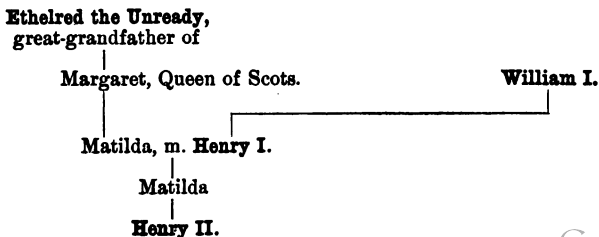
PART III.—THE ANGEVIN KINGS. 1154–1399

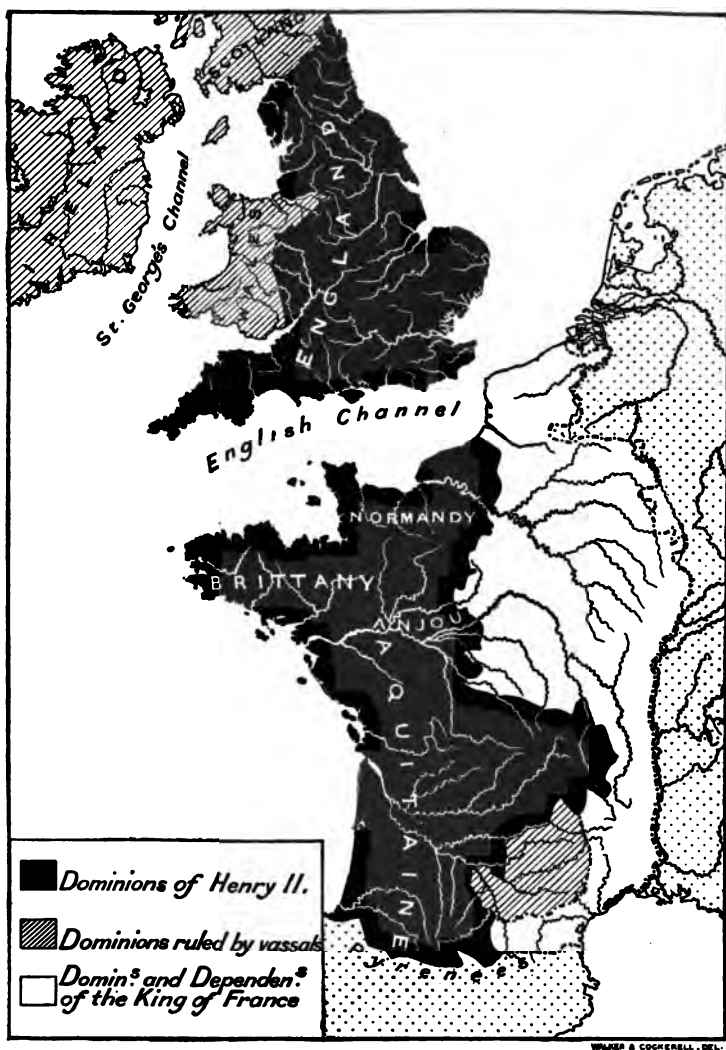
CHAPTER X

Henry II., 1154–1189

1. *Henry II.*, the son of Matilda, was the first king since Edward the Confessor who was descended from the house of Egbert and Alfred. It was through his grandmother, *Matilda of Scotland*, the wife of Henry I., that he traced this descent. He was often called *Henry of Anjou*, because his father, *Geoffrey*, was Count of Anjou, a district in France to the south of Normandy. For this reason Henry II. and his successors are often called the *House of Anjou*. They were also called the *House of Plantagenet* because in their coat of arms they had a broom-plant, — the Norman-French word for this being plante-genét.

TABLE SHOWING DESCENT OF HENRY II. FROM THE NORMAN AND ENGLISH ROYAL HOUSES.





The Empire of Henry II.

2. Henry II. was already Duke of Normandy and Count of Anjou when he became King of England. He had also won a very great territory in southern and western France called *Aquitaine* through his marriage with *Eleanor of Aquitaine*, the rich heiress of those regions. Thus Henry ruled over more French land than the King of France himself. Moreover, he subdued the Scots and the Welsh. He also conquered part of Ireland, and was the first English king to be called *Lord of Ireland*. But his power was not very great in any of these regions, and in Ireland he had little real authority. It was not until the days of the Tudor kings that England thoroughly conquered Ireland.

3. All these possessions, however, made Henry II. a very powerful king. He ruled over all these territories very wisely and vigorously. He was hot-tempered, violent, and sometimes rather cruel. But he knew how to make himself obeyed. He put an end to the disorderly state of things that had prevailed in England under King Stephen. He pulled down the castles that the barons had built in Stephen's days without asking for the king's permission. Under him England was again peaceful and well governed, as it had been in the days of his grandfather, Henry I.

4. Henry II. was very fond of making changes in the government of the country. The most famous of these changes was a system of trying prisoners, which he borrowed from his grandfather, and set up on such a firm basis that it has lasted ever since. He sent his judges over all the country from time to time, and so established the system of *Assizes*, or circuit courts, which have continued down to the present time. Henry also used the system of *trial by jury* so often that

Henry II.'s
great
dominions.

Character of
Henry II.

Henry II.'s
new laws

Assizes, and
trial by jury.

it became henceforth the regular way of trying criminals. When the king's judge went round to hold the assizes, or law courts, in each county, he was helped in trying prisoners by a body of men belonging to the neighborhood who swore that they would tell the truth as they knew it. They were called a jury, from the Latin word *jurati*, which means sworn men.

5. During Henry II.'s long reign the English and Normans gradually became one people. For a long time after the Conquest there was a clear line of division between the Norman rulers and the English people that they ruled. So many Normans had now married English ladies that most of the nobles had English as well as Norman ancestors. Many new families rose into power that were wholly English by descent. The upper classes still used more French than English, as had been the case ever since the days of William the Conqueror. Even when they spoke the French tongue, however, they were thoroughly English in feeling. They were very glad to fight the French kings, and the English kings now gave them plenty of chances of doing that.

6. Henry II. had a famous dispute with one of his Archbishops of Canterbury, whose name was *Thomas Becket*. In the early part of his reign Thomas had been the king's chief minister, and had worked very zealously in the king's service. When the Archbishop of Canterbury died, the king thought it would be a fine thing to make his faithful minister archbishop. He believed that as archbishop Becket would take care to bring the Church over to the king's side. In those days the Church was very powerful, and even kings were afraid to quarrel with it.

7. Becket was made archbishop. He took a very serious view of his office, and tried to follow in the footsteps of Anselm. He was very eager to uphold

all the rights and liberties of the Church, and had not long been archbishop when he had a fierce quarrel with the king. The chief cause of the dispute was the question how **Quarrel of** **Henry II.** **and Thomas.** clergyman who had committed offences were to be tried. Henry wished to have them brought before the king's courts like anybody else. Becket said that the clergy ought only to be tried in the courts of the Church, because it was profane to bring such holy men before the judges of the king. The result was that the old friends became very bitter enemies. Before long Henry drove Thomas out of the kingdom, and he remained in exile for six years.

8. At last, in 1170, Henry and Thomas patched up their quarrel, and Thomas went back to Canterbury. But Thomas was very restless and meddlesome, and soon began to start fresh disputes. **The quarrel is patched up and breaks out again.** This made the king very angry. He burst into a mad rage, and said all sorts of severe things about the archbishop. "Will not one of my cowardly servants," he cried, "rid me of this turbulent priest?"

9. Four of Henry's followers took the king at his word. They went straight to Canterbury, thinking that they would please the king by murdering the archbishop. **Murder of Thomas at Canterbury.** Thomas took refuge from them in his cathedral. The murderers thundered at the door. "Unbolt that door!" said Thomas to his clergy. "I will not have God's house made a fortress for me." Then the four rushed into the church, crying. "Where is the traitor?" "Here I am," answered Thomas; "no traitor, but archbishop and priest of God." Then they fell upon him with their swords, and cruelly put him to death. When the foul deed was done, they cried, "Let us go now. He will never rise again."

10. All Europe was horrified at the murder of Becket in his own church. Tales were quickly spread of the

holiness of his life and the bravery of his death. Men forgot that Becket was no gentle saint like Anselm, but always quarrelsome and violent, and that **Thomas is made a saint.** he fought not so much for justice and truth as for the rights of the Church. His noble death had given a touch of nobility to his whole life. He was now called *St. Thomas of Canterbury*, the martyr



Canterbury Cathedral. View of part of east of High Altar where Becket's Shrine was placed.

(The tombs under canopies are those of Henry IV. and the Black Prince.)

for the liberties of Holy Church. His *shrine*, or tomb, at Canterbury Cathedral became the most famous place of pilgrimage in England. Thousands of men flocked as pilgrims from all parts of Europe to pray at the martyr's burial-place.

11. Henry was horrified at what the knights had done. They had thought to serve him, but they had

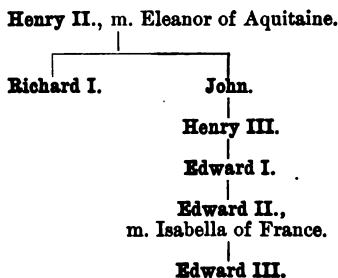
made him hateful to all Christendom. Nothing prospered with him. His subjects looked upon him with fear. His nobles rose in revolt against him. Henry saw that he must make it clear that he was sorry for his rash words, and had not wished to take the archbishop's life. He went himself as a pilgrim to Canterbury. He knelt humbly before the tomb of his old enemy, and was flogged with rods as his punishment. The Pope then declared that the king's repentance had atoned for his sin. But the worst result of Becket's murder was that Henry was obliged to allow the law to remain as Becket had wished it. Until the Reformation any clergyman who committed a crime was tried in the courts of the Church, and not in the courts of the king.

Henry's troubles and pilgrimage to Thomas's tomb.

12. Henry's last years were full of disasters. His sons were disobedient and faithless. More than once they rose in revolt against their father, though he had always been foolishly kind to them. They joined with his great enemy the King of France, and gave the old king all the trouble they could. In the midst of one of these revolts Henry II. died, overwhelmed with misfortunes, in 1189.

Henry II's last years and death.

TABLE SHOWING THE DESCENDANTS OF HENRY II. DOWN TO EDWARD III.



Summary. Henry II., a powerful king, introduces better methods for trying criminals. English and Normans become one people. Quarrel between Henry and Thomas Becket ends in the murder of Thomas. Henry's last years disturbed by revolt of his sons.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Is jury trial better than trial by compurgation, ordeal, or wager of battle? Have we circuit courts in the United States? What is a pilgrimage?

Outlaws: Gilliat, E., *Forest Outlaws, or St. Hugh and the King.*

Wars on the Welsh Border: Scott, Sir W., *The Betrothed.*

Books for Teachers. Green, Mrs. J. R., *Henry II.*; Stubbs, W., *Early Plantagenets*; Hutton, W. H., *St. Thomas, Archbishop of Canterbury.*

CHAPTER XI

The Sons of Henry II., 1189-1216

1. The eldest living son of Henry, Richard, now became King *Richard I.* He was very fond of fighting, and more anxious to win glory for himself than to govern his kingdom well. He was English king for more than ten years, but he lived almost entirely in his French dominions. Only twice did he visit England, and on each occasion for a very short time. As soon as he had collected enough money to enable him to carry out his plans of fighting, he hurried away again. Yet Englishmen honored him for his deeds of daring, and called him Richard *Lion Heart*. However, not one of all the English kings was so little of an Englishman, or cared so little for the country as King Richard.

Richard
Lion Heart.

2. Soon after he became king, Richard went on what was called a Crusade. A *Crusade* was a holy war against the Mohammedans, and was so called because those who took part in it wore a cross sewn on to their clothes to show that they were engaged in a holy work. The first of these crusades had begun in the days of William Rufus, and the crusade that Richard took part in was called the *Third Crusade*. It was the fashion in those days for men to go on *pilgrimages*, or holy journeys to the tombs of great saints and holy men. We have seen how in England a great many people went on pilgrimage to the tomb of St. Thomas of Canterbury. But no pilgrimage was so meritorious as that to the *Holy Sepulchre* at

The
Crusades.

Jerusalem. However, Jerusalem was in the hands of the Turks, who hated the Christian faith and robbed and murdered the Christian pilgrims. The Crusades were started to drive the Turks out of Jerusalem, and to set



Church of the Holy Sepulchre, Jerusalem.

up a Christian kingdom in the holy places where Jesus Christ had lived His earthly life.

3. The First Crusade had expelled the Turks from Jerusalem, and had set up a Christian kingdom there. But after nearly a hundred years there arose a very gallant and noble Turkish Sultan, called *Saladin*, who drove the Christians out of Jerusa-

lem again. The Third Crusade was undertaken in order to restore Christian rule in the Holy City.

4. Richard fought well against Saladin, and won many battles against him. But he did not manage to conquer Jerusalem, though he came within sight of its walls. Thereupon he turned his face away, saying that if he were not able to conquer it he was not worthy to look at it.

Richard
taken pris-
oner in
Germany.

However, he made a truce with Saladin, by which the Christians were allowed to go on pilgrimage to the Holy Sepulchre. Then he started home. On his way he was taken prisoner by the Duke of *Austria*, a German nobleman with whom he had quarrelled in the Holy Land. He was left in prison until the English paid an enormous sum of money to the Germans by way of ransoming their captive king. It was only in 1194 that Richard got back to England.

5. As soon as he had raised a large treasure, Richard left England again. He spent the rest of his life fighting the King of France, who had tried to rob him of his French lands while he was a prisoner in Germany. After five years, he was shot dead from the wall of a castle which he was besieging.

Richard's
last years
and death.

6. Richard left no children, and his younger brother, *John*, became king in his stead. John was the very wickedest and worst of all English kings. Cruel, greedy, self-willed, and violent, he failed in everything that he tried to do. He ruled so badly that he turned most of his subjects against him.

King John.

7. Before John had been king for four years the nobles of his French territories rose in revolt, and called upon the French king to come to their help. The French king did this very willingly. He declared that John had forfeited all his lands in France, and took possession of Normandy and

The loss of
Normandy
and Anjou.

Anjou. All that was left to John of Henry II.'s great French possessions was a part of the inheritance of his mother, Eleanor of Aquitaine. This district, which was called *Gascony*, had *Bordeaux* as its chief town, and remained the property of the English kings for two hundred and fifty years longer.

8. In John's days there lived one of the most famous of all the Popes or Bishops of Rome. The name of this Pope was *Innocent III*. Now, John and Innocent could not agree as to who should be Archbishop of Canterbury. The king wanted to appoint a very unfit man to the post; but the Pope would not allow this, and wished to give the archbishopric to *Stephen Langton*, the wisest and most learned Englishman of his day. John objected, and a fierce quarrel followed, which lasted several years. In the course of it Innocent put England under what was called an *Interdict*. That means that he stopped all public services in church, until John gave way. But though the pious English were very unhappy at all divine worship being cut off, the godless John only laughed at the Pope's threats.

9. Innocent was determined not to be beaten. At last he declared that John had no right to reign any longer, and called upon the King of France to invade England and drive John away from his kingdom. This threat brought John to his knees. He suddenly submitted to the Pope. He agreed to accept Langton as archbishop. But he did more than that. He took his crown off his head and handed it over to *Pandulf*, the Pope's representative. He promised that henceforth he would regard the Pope as his overlord, and pay him a sum of money every year by way of tribute. It was the most disgraceful surrender that any king of England ever made. John, however, cared little for the shame of it, if he could get

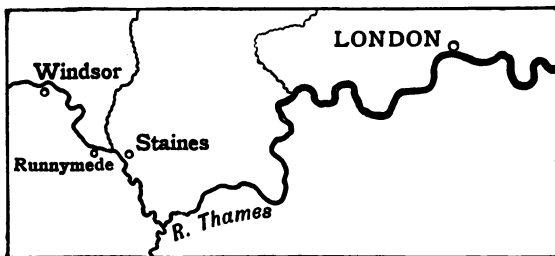
Quarrel of
John and
Pope
Innocent III.

John
becomes
the Pope's
vassal.

out of his immediate difficulty. He thought it would be a great advantage to him to have the Pope henceforward on his side.

10. During all these years John had been reigning very badly. The barons had long hated him, and now the poorer people began to fall away from him and to put themselves on the side of the barons. Archbishop Langton wisely strove to bring together all the different classes of Englishmen against the cruel king. The barons went to war against

The barons
oppose John.



John, and very few cared to fight for the tyrant. In 1215 John found that he could resist no longer. He met the barons near Staines, on a meadow by the banks of the river Thames, called *Runnymede*. There he was forced to agree to the terms which the barons had drawn up.

11. The demands of the barons were contained in a document called, in Latin, *Magna Carta*; that is, in English, the Great Charter. Till now the Norman kings had ruled as they chose, like despots. John was now forced to have regard to the rights of church, barons, and people. He was not to raise fresh taxes without the consent of the barons, and he was not to put any one into prison save according to the law of the land. Thus the Great Charter contains the beginnings of English liberty and

Magna
Carta.

of the English constitution. It took a very long while before all its articles were really carried out, but it was something to have made a beginning.

12. John soon broke his word, threw over the Charter, hired foreign soldiers to fight for him, and went to war against the barons. He pressed them so hard that they were forced to call on *Louis of France*, the eldest son of the French king, to come over to help them. Even with French help, they found it hard to overcome John. Luckily, next year, in 1216, John suddenly died.

John over-
throws the
Charter.
His death.

Summary. Richard Lion Heart and the Crusades. John loses Normandy and Anjou. Quarrel between John and Pope Innocent III. leads John to become the vassal of the popes. Barons oppose John and gain the Magna Carta.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Why is the Magna Carta so important? Do you think Richard attended to the business of the kingdom well? Do you think that the loss of Normandy was a good or a bad thing for England?

Richard I. : Scott, Sir W., *Ivanhoe*.

Third Crusade: Henty, G. A., *Winning His Spurs*; Scott, Sir W., *The Talisman*.

The Magna Carta: Edgar, J. G., *Runnymede and Lincoln Fair*.

Loss of Normandy: Gilliat, E., *Wolf's Head*.

John's Time: Yonge, C. M., *Constable of the Tower*.

Books for Teachers. Stubbs, W., *Early Plantagenets*; Archer, T. A., *Crusade of Richard I*.



Silver Penny of John's Reign.

CHAPTER XII

Henry III., 1216-1272

1. On John's death his eldest son became *Henry III.* The new king was a boy, only nine years old. The barons who had called in Louis of France refused to recognize Henry as their king, and the civil war went on for two years longer.

Defeat of
Louis of
France.

Louis' friends gradually fell away from him, and Henry's side became stronger and stronger. It was felt by many that it was a bad thing to be ruled by the man who on his father's death would become king of France also. The little king was quite innocent of his father's misdeeds. His friends now showed that they did not intend to allow him to govern in the way that King John had ruled. They issued Magna Carta once more as a free-will grant of Henry III. This took away the only good reason for opposing Henry. Louis' cause now rapidly began to lose ground. In 1217 he was forced to leave England, and Henry III. became undisputed king.

2. The two chief supporters of Henry in his struggle against Louis were *Stephen Langton*, the Archbishop of Canterbury, and *William Marshall*, Earl of Pembroke. After the Frenchman had gone home, these two wise men restored England to peace and prosperity. Though Pembroke

The rule of
Stephen
Langton and
William
Marshall.

was an old man, who died in 1219, the work which he had begun was carried on after his death. Gradually the horrors of the civil war were forgotten. John's foreign soldiers were driven out of England, and Englishmen again became the rulers of their own country.

3. Unluckily, new troubles arose when Henry III. became old enough to govern. He was a much better

Character of Henry III. man than most of the kings who had gone before him. He was pious, gentle, and good-natured. He was faithful to his friends

and devoted to his wife and children. He was well educated, and loved to build beautiful churches and to adorn them with fine statues and decorations. The most famous church that he built was the Westminster Abbey which now exists. Henry pulled down Edward the Confessor's church, and set up a far finer and richer one in its place. He did this because he specially honored Edward the Confessor. Another way he had of showing respect to this king was to call his eldest son Edward. Perhaps one reason why Henry loved Edward the Confessor so much was that he was not unlike him in character. Like the Confessor, Henry was too weak and too fond of foreigners to be a good king. He gave many rich estates and high offices to his wife's kinsfolk, who came from the south of France, and were very numerous and greedy. Every clever young Frenchman was sure to receive a warm welcome from Henry if he went to England. It soon became quite the fashion for young French nobles to make their way to England, in order to push their fortunes there. One of these was *Simon of Montfort*. He married the king's sister, and was recognized by Henry as Earl of Leicester.

4. Neither Henry nor his foreign friends knew how to rule England. The promise which the king had

Henry's weak rule. made, that he would govern according to the Great Charter, was not kept. The king

was always collecting heavy taxes. But he wasted the money on his favorites, and did not keep good order. The barons at last grew very angry. They resolved that they would force Henry to take their advice, and rule the country better.

5. Since the Great Charter, the barons had much more power than they had had before. The king was no longer a despot, but was bound to ask the consent of a body called *parliament* before he raised fresh taxes or passed new laws. The parliament of those days was not like the present parliament, composed of representatives of the whole people. It consisted only of the earls, barons, bishops, and other leading nobles and clergymen. But it was becoming a real check on the king, and especially on a weak king like Henry III.

The begin-
nings of
parliament.

6. At first the parliament of barons was unable to do much against the king. It lacked a good leader, and it was a long time before one was found. At last an excellent leader appeared in the person of the king's brother-in-law, Simon of Montfort. Montfort had now become quite a good Englishman. He had at first supported the king, like the other foreigners. But he was so much wiser than Henry that he soon grew disgusted with his brother-in-law's careless ways. He quarrelled violently with him, and headed the barons opposed to the king. In 1258 the parliament met at Oxford, and drew up, under Simon's guidance, some new laws, called the *Provisions of Oxford*. By these the foreigners were driven out of the country, and the government of England handed over from the king to the barons.

The Pro-
visions of
Oxford.

7. The new system worked pretty well for a few years. However, Henry hated it, and so did his son *Edward*, who was now a grown man, and much wiser and more determined than his foolish father. The king and his son could have done little if the barons had agreed among themselves. This, however, was not long the case. Earl Simon thought that the barons were ruling selfishly in their own interests. He wished to do more

Henry and
the barons
renew their
quarrel.

for the common people. The result was a quarrel between Simon and his friends. This gave Henry and Edward their chance. They took up arms against the barons. The civil war that followed is called the *Barons' War*.

8. When it came to fighting, the barons once more had to unite. Simon of Montfort now took the lead over all.

In 1264 he won a great victory over the royalists at *Lewes*, in Sussex, where Henry and Edward were both taken prisoners.

9. Simon was now the real ruler of England. Early in 1265 he called together a parliament to help him. Up

**Earl Simon's
Parliament
of 1265.**

to this time most parliaments had, as we have seen, been gatherings of nobles only. But Montfort's Parliament of 1265 was a great deal more than this. He summoned every county to elect two representatives of the free landholders to speak on its behalf. He also requested every town to choose in the same way two of

its burgesses to sit as its representatives. This was not quite the first time that representatives of the counties had been summoned to parliament, though it was the most



A Knight.

(To show Armor worn about
1250 to 1300.)



Tomb of Henry III. at Westminster Abbey.

famous occasion on which they had been called. It was, however, the first time that the towns had been asked to send members to parliament. It is clear that Montfort asked them to come because he believed that every class of the people ought to have their say in the government of the country. Thus we owe it to Montfort that parliament became, not merely a gathering of nobles, but an assembly of representatives of every class of Englishmen.

10. Simon's power lasted less than a year. Wise and great as he was, he was very overbearing and quarrelsome. Some of the nobles hated him because he trusted the people, and others because they believed he was very ambitious and greedy of power for himself. They began to quarrel with him once more. Henry was now old and worn out, and his wishes counted for little, even on his own side. Edward was the real leader of the royalists. He escaped from prison, joined Montfort's enemies, and went to war against him. In 1265 he defeated and slew Simon, at the battle of *Evesham*, in Worcestershire.

11. Edward then restored his father to his throne. After this, things remained quiet for the rest of the old king's reign. After a year or two, Edward found that the land was so peaceful that he went on a crusade. He fought bravely against the Turks, but could not do much against them. He was still away in the East when Henry III. died, in 1272.

Summary. Henry III., nine years old, becomes king. He wastes money on foreign favorites and gets into trouble with the barons. Simon of Montfort calls the Parliament of 1265 after defeating the king at Lewes. Simon is killed at Evesham, Henry dies, and Edward, his son, succeeds to the throne.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. For what body under the Norman kings is parliament another name? Can you think

of any other reason than the one given in the book why Montfort asked the representatives of the people to come to parliament? Who was Edward the Confessor? Find in a dictionary what the word "burgess" means.

Henry III.: Yonge, C. M., *The Prince and the Page*.

The Barons' War: Green, E. E., *A Clerk at Oxford*; Edgar, J. G., *How I Won My Spurs*.

Chivalry: Pickering, E., *A Stout English Bowman*.

Days of Henry III.: Foster, A. J., and Cuthell, E. C., *The Robber Baron of Bedford Castle*.

Books for Teachers. Creighton, M., *Simon de Montfort*; Hutton, W. H., *Misrule of Henry III.* and *Simon de Montfort*.

CHAPTER XIII

Edward I., 1272-1307

1. Though it was nearly two years before *Edward I.* set foot in his kingdom, everything went on peaceably during his absence. The new king had well learned the lessons of his youth, and ruled after a very different fashion from Henry III.

**Character
of Edward I.**

He had also taken to heart the lessons of Earl Simon's life. Like Simon, he wished to have the people on his side, and to teach them to trust him. He was fond of power, but he saw that he would really get more of his own way if he took the people into some sort of partnership with him. He was brave, energetic, straightforward, and honorable. He boasted that he always kept his word, but sometimes he was content to keep the letter rather than the spirit of his promise. Moreover, he had so hot a temper that it sometimes made him hard and cruel. He was, however, one of the best of the kings, and few rulers have done more good to England.

2. One of the chief events of this reign was the conquest of the *Principality of Wales*. Wales, the old

**The con-
quest of
Wales.**

refuge of the Britons, had been constantly becoming smaller and smaller as time went on, but the greater part of it was still ruled by a prince of its own. *Llewelyn*, Prince of Wales, refused to take the oath to obey Edward, which earlier Welsh princes had always taken to the English king. Edward endured this patiently for some years. At last, however, he conquered all *Llewelyn's* dominions, and added them to his own. *Llewelyn* was killed in battle

in 1282, and there were no more native princes of Wales. A few years afterwards, however, Edward made his eldest son, *Edward*, Prince of Wales. This Edward had been born at *Carnarvon*, where his father had built a strong castle to keep the Welsh in check. In later times it gradually became the fashion for the king's eldest son to be called Prince of Wales. That custom has lasted down to our own day.



Carnarvon Castle.

(Built by Edward I.)

3. The conquest of Wales left Scotland the only part of Britain that was not ruled by the English king. Scotland was a much larger country than Wales, and was governed, not by a prince, but by a king. Though some of the kings of Scotland had recognized the English kings as their overlords, the Scottish kings were much freer and stronger than the Welsh princes. A few

**Edward
makes John
Balliol King
of Scots.**

years after the conquest of Wales, Edward had a good chance of making his power felt in Scotland. There was a dispute between the Scots as to the choice of their next king. Some were in favor of *John Balliol*, others were for *Robert Bruce*, and others supported other candidates. At last the Scots thought their best course was to ask Edward to decide for them which of the claimants had the best right. Edward agreed to undertake this task, but before he set to work he asked all the candidates to admit that he was overlord of Scotland. All of them agreed to this, and promised to obey Edward as overlord. Then Edward heard all that they had to say. At last he declared that John Balliol had the best title to be king. Balliol then took an oath to obey Edward, and was crowned King of Scots.

4. Disputes soon arose between Edward and Balliol. Edward wanted to interfere in Scottish affairs more than earlier English monarchs had done, and Balliol was very much annoyed at his action. In a very few years war broke out. In 1296 Edward invaded Scotland, took Balliol prisoner, and forced him to give up his kingdom. Then he appointed English governors to rule over the Scots. He was resolved that he himself would henceforth be the only king in Scotland.

5. The Scots hated to be subject to the English king. Things were made worse by some of the English governors treating the Scots very cruelly. After a few months the Scots rose in revolt against Edward. They chose as their leader a fierce and resolute soldier, named *William Wallace*. Under his guidance they drove the English out of Scotland.

Next year Edward came himself, at the head of a great army, to win back Scotland to his obedience. In 1298 he defeated Wallace in the battle of *Falkirk*, but though Edward won this battle, he was

far from having subdued Scotland. The Scots were determined not to be ruled by him, and as soon as the king put them down in one place, they rose in revolt in another. Wallace remained at liberty for seven years after his defeat at Falkirk. At last, however, he was

SOUTHERN SCOTLAND during the later Middle Ages.



taken prisoner, and put to death as a traitor. The Scots said that Wallace was no traitor, since he was only defending his native country, and had never taken an oath to obey Edward. After his death Edward subdued all the land. This second conquest was, as we have seen, a much harder business than the first conquest in the days of John Balliol. Yet it did not last much longer.

6. Very soon the Scots rose once more in revolt. They had now a new leader in *Robert Bruce*, grandson of the Robert Bruce who had claimed the throne against

John Balliol. Bruce had till now generally been on Edward's side, but he had a quarrel with another nobleman, named *John Comyn*, and murdered him in a church. Edward would not forgive Bruce this lawless deed, so Bruce rose in revolt in 1306, and was joined by so many that he was soon crowned King of Scots. Edward, who was now nearly seventy years old, saw that he must conquer Scotland for a third time. He marched to Carlisle with a great army, but before he could reach Scottish soil death carried him off, at Burgh-on-Sands, near the border. Thus he failed to accomplish that conquest of Scotland on which he had set his heart. It was natural that the Scots should look upon him as a cruel tyrant. Yet, even in dealing with the Scots, Edward had meant to do right. He believed that it was best for all Britain to be ruled by one king, and that he would be able to govern the Scots more wisely than they could themselves. The Scots, however, loved their freedom so much that nothing would induce them to accept even benefits from Edward's hands.

7. It is pleasant to turn from Edward's constant wars with the Scots to his doings in England, where he proved himself a very successful king. He was famous for passing a large number of wise laws, and for making England more peaceable and better governed than it ever had been before. The greatest benefit that Edward did to England was to call together the Model Parliament in 1295. This settled that parliament should always be, like Simon of Montfort's Parliament of 1265, composed of representatives of the people as well as of the great lords and bishops. The result was that, before long, parliament was divided into two parts. The lords and bishops made up the *House of Lords*, and the members for the counties and towns formed the *House of*

**Robert
Bruce be-
comes King
of Scots.**

**Edward the
creator of
modern
parliament.**

Commons. Thus Edward I. is, even more than Simon of Montfort, the creator of the free *English Constitution*.

8. Before long Edward was forced to make greater concessions to his people than he wished to do. In 1297 he found that the people would not help him against the Scots unless he agreed to a new *Confirmation of the Charters*, by which the king promised to raise no more fresh taxes without the consent of parliament. It is the best proof of the new love of freedom that had grown up in England that the people were able to force so strong and fierce a king as Edward to yield to their demands.

Summary. Edward I. conquers Wales, makes John Balliol King of Scots, and then conquers Scotland. Scots rise under Wallace and are again conquered. Edward calls together a Model Parliament and confirms the charters. Robert Bruce becomes King of Scots and Edward dies on his way to conquer Scotland for the third time.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Which king granted the first great charter? Is the English Constitution written out like the Constitution of the United States? Why was Scotland a hard country to subdue?

Edward's Crusade: Yonge, C. M., *The Prince and the Page*.

Wars in Wales: Gilliat, E., *The King's Reeve*.

Wallace and Bruce: Henty, G. A., *In Freedom's Cause*.

Books for Teachers. Tout, T. F., *Edward I.*; Edwards, O. M., *Story of Wales*.

CHAPTER XIV

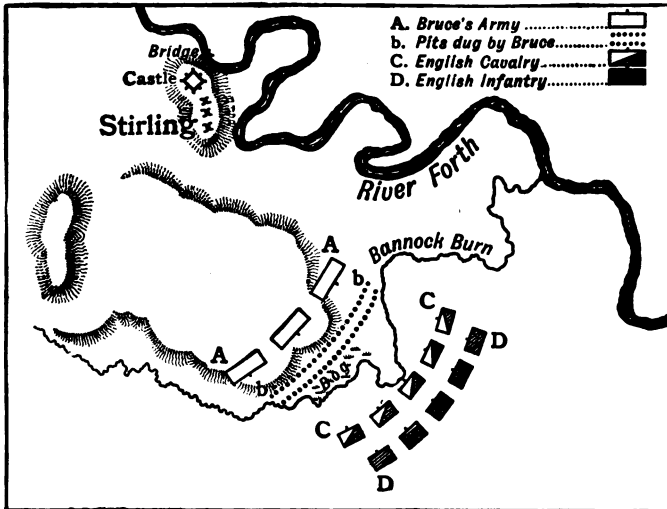
Edward II., 1307-1327

1. Edward of Carnarvon now became *Edward II.* He thought of nothing but amusing himself, and allowed worthless favorites to rule England in his name. The first of these was *Piers Gaveston*. *Gaveston*, a young man who came from Gascony, the part of southern France which the English kings still ruled after John had lost most of the English king's lands in France. Gaveston was a friend of the new king when a boy. Edward I., seeing that his influence on his son was bad, had driven him out of the country. As soon as his father was dead, Edward II. called Gaveston back to England, and gave him many rich estates. Before long the barons grew indignant that Gaveston should have more influence over the king than they had themselves. They took him prisoner, and cruelly put him to death. Edward was so weak and lazy that he soon forgot even the death of his best friend.

2. While Edward was quarrelling with his barons about Gaveston, Robert Bruce was gradually conquering all Scotland. At last *Stirling* was the only place that still held out against him, and *Stirling* was closely besieged by him. Edward and his barons were now better friends than they had been, and in 1314 they agreed to march with an army to prevent the Scots from taking *Stirling*. The English got near to the besieged town. Bruce had, however, posted his army at *Bannockburn*, a little south of *Stirling*, and the only way for the English to reach the garrison

**The Battle
of Bannock-
burn.**

was for them to drive away the Scots. Bruce's army was nearly all on foot, while most of the English were mounted on horseback. Bruce placed his Scots in a strong position, on rising ground and behind a bog. He also dug pits before his soldiers, and covered them



Battle of Bannockburn.

over lightly with turf and sticks. The English cavalry rushed at full speed towards the Scots, but many of the Southerners fell into the pits, and all were thrown into confusion. The result was that the battle of Bannockburn proved an overwhelming victory for the Scots.

3. A few years later the English recognized Bruce as Robert, King of Scots, and agreed that the English king had no claim to be his overlord. Much trouble resulted from there being two independent kings in one little island. For the next two hundred years the English and Scots

Robert
Bruce rec-
ognized as
King of
Scots.

were nearly always fighting each other, and each nation worked all sorts of damage on its rival.

4. After Bannockburn things got worse and worse. Edward was now ruled by new favorites, the two **The deposition of Edward II.** *Hugh Despensers*, father and son. The pride and violence of the Despensers disgusted everybody with them and their master. At last even Edward's wife, *Isabella of France*, turned against him, and joined his enemies. The wretched Edward was now driven from the throne, and his eldest son made king, as Edward III. Next year Edward II. was cruelly put to death, at *Berkeley Castle*, in Gloucestershire. In those days deposed kings did not live long.

Summary. Edward II., weak and worthless, is under the control of a favorite, Gaveston. Bruce defeats Edward at Bannockburn and is recognized by the English as King of Scots. Edward is deposed and put to death.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. What was the difference in results between the wars against Wales and the wars against Scotland? To what great family of nations did the Scots and Welsh belong? Where did the Welsh live before they went to Wales?

Bruce: Aguilar, G., *The Days of Bruce*.

Bannockburn: Lanier, S., *Boy's Froissart*.

Books for Teachers. Maxwell, Sir H., *Robert the Bruce*; Mackintosh, J., *Story of Scotland*.

CHAPTER XV

Edward III., 1327-1377

1. *Edward III.* was a vain, showy man, who was fond of pomp, and kept up a magnificent court. He wished to win battles, and to make a name for himself as a soldier. The most famous thing that happened in his long reign was the beginning of a great war between England and France, which has been called the *Hundred Years' War*. This does not mean that England and France were constantly fighting for exactly a hundred years. Yet for longer than that time the two countries were nearly always unfriendly, and generally actually at war with each other.

Edward III.
and the
Hundred
Years' War.

2. There were many causes of this mighty struggle. The French and English could never long remain friends so long as the English king remained Duke of Gascony. This made him the subject of the King of France, and led to many disputes breaking out between the two. Moreover, the French had given a great deal of help to Robert Bruce and the Scots, and the English thought that France had no right to interfere between England and her island enemies. However, the thing that brought these disputes to a head was Edward III.'s claim to the French throne.

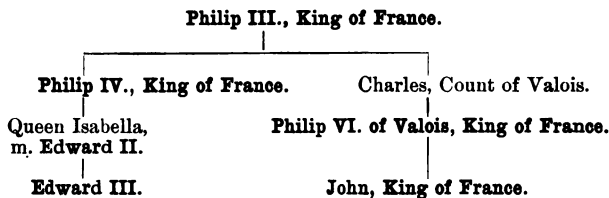
Causes of
the war.

3. In 1328 the old line of French kings died out, and the French made *Philip, Count of Valois*, their king as Philip VI. They did this because he was the nearest male heir to the former kings. It was true that there

were nearer heirs, and among them was Edward III. himself, whose mother, Isabella of France, was sister to the French king who had reigned before Philip of Valois. As the French would not permit a woman to reign in France, they would not even allow a man to claim the throne through his mother. They therefore passed over Edward's claim, and for nearly ten years Edward said very little about it.

4. After all this time Edward quarrelled with Philip VI. for various other reasons. Thereupon he renewed his former pretensions. He now took the title of King of France, and declared that he was bound to go to war to drive out the usurper Philip. His claim was not a just one, for it was a question for Frenchmen only who was to be the king of their own country. Edward followed up his claim with such vigor that he soon won famous victories over the French, and gained for the English the reputation of being the best soldiers in Europe.

TABLE SHOWING EDWARD III.'S CLAIM TO THE FRENCH THRONE.



5. One of Edward's greatest victories over the French was in 1346. In that year Edward and his son, Edward, Prince of Wales — called, from the color of his armor, the *Black Prince* — landed in Normandy and marched almost to the gates of Paris, the capital of France. But the

**Battle of
Crécy.**

French now gathered together a much larger army than that of the English, and forced them to retreat towards the north. At last the English turned, and gave battle to the enemy at *Crécy*. The English prepared for the fight very much as the Scots had done at Bannockburn. Those who had horses sent them to the rear, and all stood on foot, shoulder to shoulder, protected by a strong position on a hill, to face the charge of the French, who still fought on horseback, after the fashion that we saw the Normans had adopted at Hastings. The result of the battle proved once more what Bannockburn had shown already, that well-drilled foot soldiers could defeat horse soldiers. In particular the English archers did excellent service by shooting showers of arrows against the French horsemen. Though the French were much more numerous than the English, they were very badly beaten. The Black Prince, though a mere boy, fought very bravely, and won for himself a great name. Soon afterwards the victorious English captured the French town of *Calais*, after a long siege. It remained English for more than two hundred years.

6. Ten years after the battle of *Crécy*, the Black Prince won another victory, almost as famous as *Crécy* itself. This time Edward III. was in England, but his son was now old enough to fight by himself. His father had made him Duke of Gascony, and he now lived at Bordeaux, the chief town of that duchy. In 1356 he led a brilliant army northwards, against the French. King Philip was now dead, but his son, King John, tried to block the Black Prince's retreat home to Bordeaux, and forced him to fight a battle near *Poitiers*, against overwhelming odds. The Black Prince and his gallant English and Gascon soldiers easily defeated the French, and made King John a prisoner. The Black Prince treated his

Battle of
Poitiers.

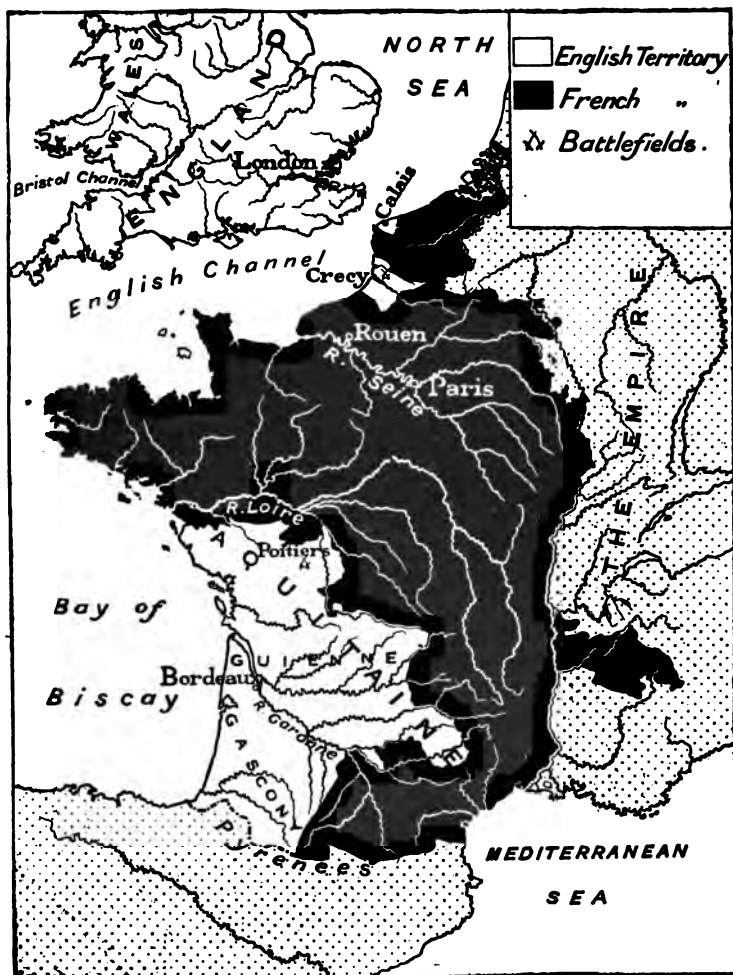
defeated enemy with great generosity. Though John was his foe, he highly honored him because he had fought so bravely.

7. France now fell into a terrible state, and in 1360 King John was glad to make peace in the *Treaty of Brétigny*. By this Edward gave up his claim to the French throne, and in return for that he received, besides Calais, nearly all the lands between the Loire and the Pyrenees, the same districts that Eleanor of Aquitaine had brought to the English Crown on her marriage to Henry II.

8. This peace did not last very long. The provinces ceded to Edward rose in revolt against him, and the French soon began to help them. By this time the French had found out that the English were better than they were in fighting pitched battles. They now avoided regular fights, and strove to wear down the English by making them march about till they were tired out. This new fashion of fighting soon proved very successful, especially as the Black Prince fell ill, and went home from Bordeaux to die in his own land. Before the end of Edward III.'s reign, the English had lost nearly all that they had won, save a few coast towns like Calais and Bordeaux.

9. The English won great glory in these wars, and took an immense pride in themselves and their country. One result of this was that the English king and nobles began to speak English. Ever since the Norman Conquest French had been the ordinary language of the upper classes in England. Now, however, English was again spoken by the great as well as by the smaller folk, and many famous books were written in it.

10. The English suffered as much as they gained by the war. They became fiercer and more cruel and



The English Dominions in France after the Treaty of Breigny, 1360.

greedy. Even a kindly gentleman like the Black Prince dealt harshly with the common people. They soon found that the French war meant heavy taxes. A terrible plague called the *Black Death* devastated England so cruelly that it was believed that one man in three died of it. The worst outbreak of this scourge was in 1349.

11. Things grew still worse as Edward III. became old and foolish. At last parliament set to work to try to make the king rule better. In 1376 a parliament met, which did so much for the people that men called it the *Good Parliament*. III.

The last service that the Black Prince did to his country was to support the Good Parliament against his father. While the Prince of Wales was thus on the side of the people, his younger brother, the Duke of Lancaster, upheld the old king and his courtiers. This duke was called *John of Gaunt*, because he was born at Gaunt, or Ghent, in Flanders. There were hot words passed between the two brothers. Edward died while the parliament was still sitting, and then John of Gaunt and the courtiers were strong enough to send the parliament home, and bring back the evil ministers that parliament had driven from power. Soon after Edward III. died, after a reign that gave England more glory than happiness. And even the glory was gone long before his death.

Summary. Edward III. claims the French throne and begins the Hundred Years' War against France. He and his son the Black Prince defeat the French at Crécy and Poitiers and make the Treaty of Brétigny. The French renew the war and gain back what they had lost. The nobles begin to speak English. The Black Death and heavy taxes cause much misery and the Good Parliament exacts reforms from Edward III., who shortly afterwards dies.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Look up the word "Salic" in the dictionary and show what it had to do with the

Hundred Years' War. What other parliaments do you recall?
Was the Hundred Years' War good for England?

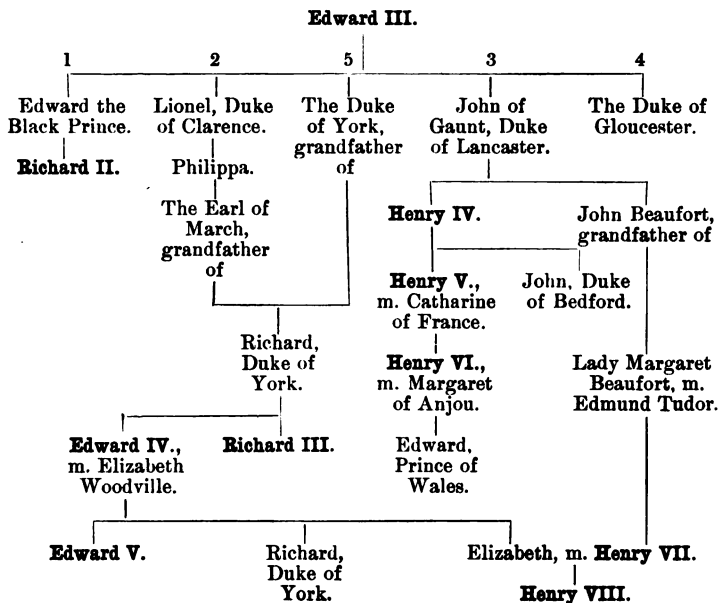
The Black Prince: Yonge, C. M., *The Lances of Lynwood*;
Edgar, J. G., *Cressy and Poitiers*.

Crécy: Green, E. E., *In the Days of Chivalry*.

Hundred Years' War: Henty, G. A., *St. George for England*;
Lanier, S., *Boy's Froissart*.

Books for Teachers. Warburton, W., *Edward III.*; Oman,
C. W. C., *England and the Hundred Years' War*; Ashley, W. J.,
Wars of Edward III.

TABLE SHOWING THE DESCENDANTS OF EDWARD III.



CHAPTER XVI

Richard II., 1377-1399

1. The next king was *Richard II.* He was the eldest son of the Black Prince, and was only a child when his grandfather died. During the first years of his reign his uncle, John of Gaunt, ruled England for him, but everything went wrong, and the people became very discontented. At last, in 1381, there was a general revolt all over England.

The minor-ity of Richard II. 2. This rebellion is often called the *Peasants' Revolt*, because the peasants, or country people, took a very large share in it. The most famous of the risings was in Kent. It began because one of the gatherers of a new and hated tax was rude to the daughter of a workman named *Wat Tyler*. Wat killed the fellow on the spot. He then put himself at the head of a swarm of laboring men, and persuaded them to rise in revolt against the new tax. Under Wat's command the rebels marched to London. They had plenty of real complaints, and had suffered cruelly. They were ignorant and brutal, and committed terrible deeds of violence. They burned John of Gaunt's house, and declared that they would have no king named John.

3. When the rebels had got to London the ministers were very much frightened. The young king, though not sixteen years old, showed wonderful coolness. He went out to meet Wat Tyler, and asked him what he wanted. Tyler answered roughly, and some of Rich-

ard's attendants thought he meant to kill the king. Thereupon one of them slew the rebel leader with his dagger. The angry mob cried for vengeance, and the king was in great danger. Richard, however, never lost heart. "I will be your leader," he said to the followers of the murdered Tyler, and the peasants took him at his word. He persuaded them to go home quietly, and promised to set right the things about which they had complained. There was a good deal of hard fighting before the rebellion was put down, and in subduing the rising the king's friends behaved as cruelly as the rebels themselves had done in the time of their success. Though the Peasants' Revolt seemed at first sight a failure, yet some good came from it. It frightened John of Gaunt from power. It showed everybody that even the poor laborer must have his rights respected, or he would take up arms and become a danger to the whole State.

Richard puts
down the
Peasants'
Revolt.

4. There were other discontented people in England besides the peasants. Ever since the distant days when Augustine first taught Englishmen the Christian faith, everybody had believed the teaching of the Church. The Church was not so pure or so active as it had once been. It was so wealthy that many worldly men became clergymen in order to enjoy its riches and power.

The state of
the Church.

5. About this time a priest, named *John Wycliffe*, began to teach that the Church was in sore need of being reformed. Wycliffe was so bold, learned, and hard-working that a great many people listened to what he had to say. His followers were called *Lollards*; that is, babblers, or sayers of vain things.

John
Wycliffe.

6. Wycliffe taught that the Pope of Rome had no right to be head of the Church in England. He advised the nobles to take away from the Church its wealth, so

that the clergy, being poor like Christ, might also be able to live more Christlike lives. He translated the Bible into English, so that Englishmen might be able to read it for themselves. He sent out a number of his disciples, who were called Wycliffe's *Poor Priests*. These men explained their master's teaching to the people, and spread copies of his English Bibles. At last he boldly denied

Wycliffe
tries to re-
form the
Church.



John Wycliffe.

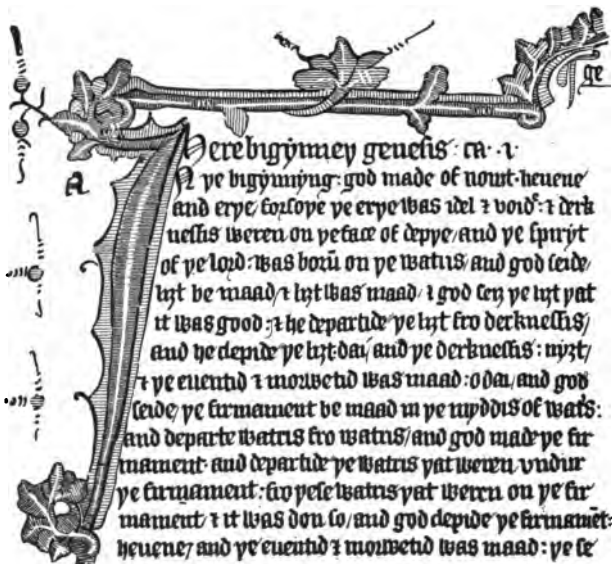
some of the chief doctrines of the Church. At this many lovers of old ways were frightened. The bishops stopped Wycliffe's teaching, and made him live at his parish of Lutterworth in Leicestershire. There he died soon afterwards, in 1384. Yet even after his death the Lollards remained very numerous.

7. At the same time as Wycliffe there lived another man who wrote in English. This was *Geoffrey Chaucer*, and the book he wrote was called the *Canterbury Tales*. Geoffrey Chaucer.

8. Richard II. did not carry out the promise of his youth. He was no idler like Edward II., but he was proud, jealous, whimsical, and eager to be a despot. He was long kept in leading-strings by his uncles. After John of Gaunt gave up the government, another of his uncles, the Duke of Gloucester, took the chief place among his ministers. One day Richard suddenly asked his uncle Gloucester, "How old am I?" Gloucester told him that he was twenty-two years old. Richard answered, "Then I am quite old enough to manage my own affairs." He drove his uncle from power, and soon got everything into his own hands. Then he took his revenge, and slew several of his chief enemies, one of them being his uncle Gloucester. He now thought he might rule like a despot, and laugh at parliament and the nobles. Richard II. tries to make himself a despot.

9. One of Richard's old enemies was his cousin, *Henry of Lancaster*, the eldest son of John of Gaunt. Henry had deserted Gloucester, and Richard had therefore pardoned him. A few years later, however, Richard found an excuse for sending Henry into banishment. While Henry was abroad, John of Gaunt died, and then Richard laid hands upon the great estates of the duchy of Lancaster. Henry was very angry at this, and, in 1399, he landed in England, declaring that he had come back to claim his father's lands. Many people joined him, being disgusted with the despotic rule of Richard. Henry was soon so successful that he claimed his cousin's throne as well as his father's duchy. Richard made a very poor fight for his kingdom. Parliament recognized Henry as king, Henry of Lancaster deposes Richard II.

and deprived Richard of his throne. A little later, Richard, like Edward II., his great-grandfather, was murdered in prison.



Portion of a page of the Manuscript of Wycliffe's Bible.

(Three-fourths Scale of Original.)

Summary. John of Gaunt rules England badly during the childhood of Richard II., son of the Black Prince. Peasants' Revolt is put down by Richard. John Wycliffe tries to reform the Church, but he and his followers are persecuted. Richard rules despotically and is deposed by his cousin, Henry of Lancaster.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Why did not the peasants want a king named "John"? What kings of England

had had trouble with the clergy? Did the villeins (peasants) at this time have any say as to what their taxes should be?

Wat Tyler: Bramston, M., *The Banner of St. George*; Gilliat, E., *John Standish, or the Harrowing of London*; Henty, G. A., *A March on London*.

John Ball: Morris, W., *A Dream of John Ball*.

Peasants' Revolt: Lanier, S., *Boy's Froissart*.

Lollards: Howitt, W., *Jack of the Mill*.

Books for Teachers. Poole, R. L., *Wyclif*; Gibbins, H., *English Social Reformers*.

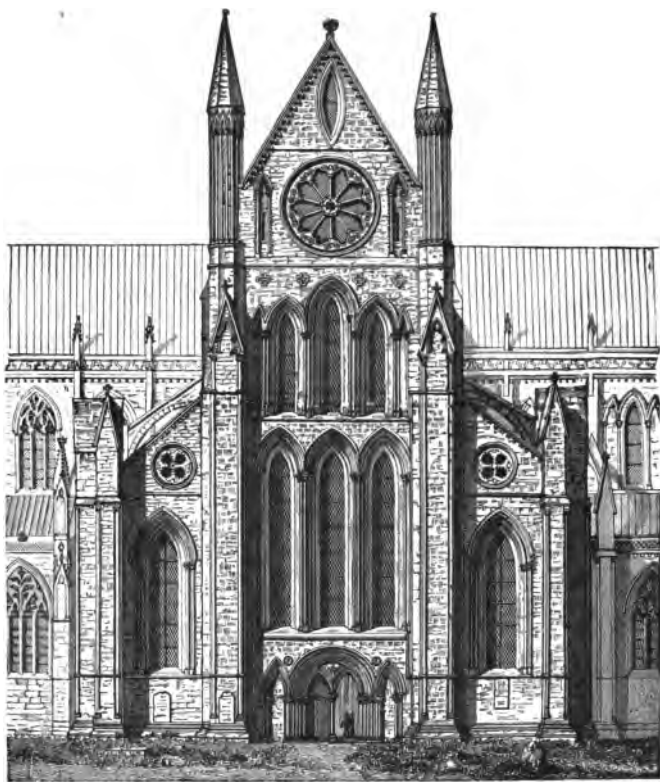
CHAPTER XVII

The Angevin Period, 1154-1399

1. During this long period of more than two hundred years the Church, the classes of society, the feudal system, chivalry, the guilds, and the manor **Changes.** remained much the same as they had been during the period of the Norman kings. Important changes did take place, however, in the powers of the king and of parliament, in the courts, in the towns, and in the institution of slavery. Slavery died out entirely. The attempts of the half-free villeins to have villeinage abolished failed, though many villeins got their freedom, and the institution of villeinage began from the close of this period to die out gradually.

2. Under the last of the Norman kings the great nobles of England had acquired much power and built many strong castles so as to resist the king. **The king.** Under Henry II. the nobles lost some of their power, but under his successors the nobles were strong enough to make the king sign the Magna Carta and agree to give up some of the powers he and his predecessors had been exercising. They forced the other Plantagenet kings to summon parliaments, they put Henry III. under the control of a council of their own number, and they deposed Edward II. and Richard II. Thus under the Plantagenets the power of the king steadily declined.

3. The name of parliament came gradually into use in the course of the thirteenth century to designate the Grand Council, and after that date the name became



Beverley Minster, Yorkshire — the South Transept ; built about 1220–1230.

(Showing the Gothic style of Architecture.)

very common. The nobles in their struggles with the king saw that it was a very good thing to have the support of the people. So in the Magna Carta the nobles forced John to promise to **Parliament.** redress not only the wrongs of the nobles, but also those of the merchants and other classes. It was for the same purpose that Simon of Montfort had representatives from

the counties and towns come to his parliament in 1265. You must bear in mind that after all only a small number of people had the right to choose such representatives. To vote in the counties a man had to be a free landholder or one of the lesser nobles, and to vote in the towns a voter had to be a man of some wealth and prominence. The large mass of the people — the villeins and the poor artisans of the towns — had no share in the voting. At that time, however, the towns and the counties were not so anxious as they are to-day to be represented in parliament. They regarded it as a burden and tried to get out of it. As the men who were sent had to pay their own expenses, they too did not wish to serve.

4. As the power of the nobles increased so the power of parliament increased, for the nobles at this time were the most important members of parliament. **Powers of parliament.** Parliament got control of taxation, and usually no law could be passed without its consent, or without the consent of both houses after it was divided in Edward III.'s reign. It frequently asserted its power to alter the succession to the crown, to appoint regencies over a young king, or in a king's absence, to impeach the king's ministers, and to depose the king and set up a new one, as in the case of Richard II. and Henry of Lancaster.

5. In earlier times very little money was given to the king in the way of taxes. His tenants gave him military service in wars and certain produce **Taxation.** from their estates in payment of feudal dues. As the kingdom grew, however, this method of paying dues to the king was very awkward. Instead of produce, money payments for feudal dues were made to the king. With the increase in the business of the kingdom, especially in the way of foreign wars, the feudal dues to the king were no longer sufficient to pay expenses. An

extraordinary tax such as Danegeld had to be levied in Anglo-Saxon times, and the Norman kings continued to levy it although the Danes no longer ravaged the land. Henry II. got the nobles to pay him a certain sum called *scutage* (shield-money) in place of their military service. As time went on more and more ways were found by the king and parliament for getting money.

6. The *ordeal* was abolished in England in 1218. The *trial by battle* was so unpopular that the citizens of many towns were exempted from it by their charters. The *compurgation* was gradually superseded by the *trial by jury*. When a crime was committed and a man accused of it, sufficient men were called from the vicinity in which the crime was committed until twelve were found who declared from their own knowledge that the accused did or did not commit the crime. Thus this early jury was really a body of *witnesses*. It was not like our modern jury of twelve men, who, knowing little about the case they are trying, have witnesses called before them and then from hearing their evidence pronounce a unanimous decision. The early jury shows us how it happens that our modern jury of twelve men must give a unanimous decision. The trial by jury was regarded as so important that a clause was put in the Magna Carta, confirming it as a right to be enjoyed by all.

Besides this jury, known as the *petty jury*, there also grew up a body of men called the *jury of presentment*. It consisted of sixteen or more men of the county, and they had to present for trial any criminals that they could find in their districts. This jury, which has developed into our *grand jury* presented these criminals for trial at the county court, or before the king's justice when he came on *circuit* into the county.

The *king's court*, over which the king himself or the chief justice of the Privy Council presided, either sat at

Westminster near London or went with the king on his travels. This was very inconvenient for those who wished to have their cases tried and so the system grew up gradually of sending the royal justices about the country to hear cases. From this practice our modern *circuit courts* have grown up.



Peasants Threshing Wheat with a Flail.

(From the Luttrell Psalter, ' *Vetusta Monumenta* .')

7. During the Crusades many of the towns bought charters which gave them freedom from the control of the king or of the barons. Under these charters the towns became wealthy through trade.

Towns and trade.

The Italian city, *Venice*, which had profited greatly by the Crusades, sent her ships to England to trade, and the great league of cities of Northern Europe, called the Hanseatic League, established a large yard and warehouses at London, called the *Steelyard*.

During the time of the Norman kings English trade had been mainly internal, and very little was done in the way of foreign commerce. All the necessities of life,

as we saw, were to be found on the manor. When the Black Death came, however, and reduced the number of farm laborers, many owners of manors found it paid much better to turn the manors into great sheep-farms. This was called *enclosing* the manorial fields, or the system of *enclosures*. The wool from the sheep was sent to Flanders, where it was in great demand by the weavers. England had sent some wool to Flanders before this



Longthorpe Manor House, Northampton ; built about 1235.

(The home of the lord of the manor. The tower was for protection against marauders and in time of war.)

period, but now she sent a great deal more, and the foreign trade grew rapidly. The interference with this trade by the French was one of the important causes of the Hundred Years' War.

8. Manufactures did not increase as rapidly as the wool-trade. In every town there were arti- **Manufac-**
sans engaged in producing certain articles. **tures.**
There were some weavers, but most of the English wool

was sent to Flanders to be woven into cloth. Edward III. encouraged Flemish weavers to come to England, but in spite of his efforts the large bulk of cloth manufacture was done outside of England.

9. Though most of the necessities of life were to be found on the manor, nevertheless there were always certain articles, such as salt fish and spices, which had to be purchased elsewhere. Except in large cities like London there were few shops such as we know. The *roads* were bad and supplies needed had to be bought from merchants who came to the great annual *fairs* in various localities. Provisions not obtainable on the manor were to be had at the local *markets* in certain towns at certain times in the month.

10. On account of the decline of serfdom or villeinage and the beginning of the *enclosures* the manor of the Norman times was changing very much. **Agriculture.** Farms were now beginning to be rented to free farmers in much the same way as they are rented nowadays.

Summary. During the Angevin period the power of the king declines and that of parliament increases. Many new forms of taxes are introduced, and also new methods of trying criminals. Towns and trade flourish, but only slight progress is made in manufactures. Markets and fairs grow with the increased trade. Villeinage is slowly disappearing, and a new class of free farmers arising. Enclosures.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Trace the power of the king from Anglo-Saxon times. Name and define the feudal dues. What were the ordeal, trial by battle, and compurgation?

Books for Teachers. (See 'Suggestions,' p. viii. — Cheyney and Feilden.)

PART IV. — THE LANCASTRIAN AND YORKIST KINGS, 1399–1485

CHAPTER XVIII

The Lancastrian Kings, 1399–1461

1. Parliament had made Henry of Lancaster King *Henry IV.*, and parliament had every right to do so. But son had so often succeeded father to the English throne, that some people were beginning to get the notion that, when one king died or was deposed, the nearest heir ought at once to receive the throne. Now the nearest heir to the throne was not Henry of Lancaster. His father, John of Gaunt, was the third son of Edward III., and, though Richard II. had no children, yet *Lionel, Duke of Clarence*, the second son of Edward III., had left a daughter, *Philippa*, whose son, *the Earl of March*, was really the nearest representative to Edward III. Yet there was no need for parliament to make the Earl of March king, and the people had been so much alarmed at Richard's attempt to play the despot that it was a wise thing not only to get rid of the tyrant, but also to set up his chief enemy in his place. Owing his throne to parliament, Henry IV. was obliged to govern in accordance with its will. His accession, then, was a triumph for parliament and the Constitution. All the kings of the House of Lancaster were *constitutional kings*, who generally followed the wishes of parliament.

2. Henry IV. was a great friend of the Church. The Church now said that the Lollards, the followers of Wycliffe, were teachers of false doctrine. **Henry IV. puts down the Lollards.** Henry therefore resolved to put them down. He got a law passed through parliament by which any person declared by the Church to be a teacher of false doctrine was to be burned to death. Many Lollards were put to death under this stern law, and, after a few years, the Lollards ceased to give the Church any further trouble. It seems to us a cruel thing to burn people alive because we do not agree with their religious views, but in those days many good men believed that it was their duty to stamp out false teaching, even by such harsh means as this.

3. Henry IV.'s reign was a short and a troubled one. The nobles who had helped him to the throne rose in revolt against him. At their head was *Henry* **Revolts against Henry IV.** *Percy, Earl of Northumberland*, and his son, also *Henry Percy*, whom men called *Hotspur* because of his rash bravery. They made an alliance with a very bold and wise Welsh gentleman, called *Owen Glendower*, who tried to renew the independence of Wales, and was for many years obeyed by most Welshmen as Prince of Wales. But the Percies and Owen did not work very well together, and gradually Henry was able to beat them all. Glendower, even when defeated, still held his own among the mountains of Wales, and died a free man early in the next reign.

4. At last Henry got over his worst difficulties. But he wore himself out in the struggle, and **Death of Henry IV.** fell into wretched health. On his death, in 1413, his eldest son Henry became *Henry V.*

5. As a boy Henry V. is said to have been wild and disorderly. But all the stories told about him can hardly be true, since he was kept hard at work by his father, fighting the Welsh and doing other things. How-

ever that may be, he was exceedingly grave and virtuous after he became king. He was a splendid soldier, and very anxious for glory. At the same time, he was wise enough to follow the advice of parliament at home. He was, therefore, both a very popular and a very successful king. The great event of his reign was the renewal of the war with France.

Character of
Henry V.



Owen Glendower as Prince of Wales.

(From his Great Seal.)

6. Henry V., like Edward III., claimed the French crown, though his claim was even more absurd than that of his great-grandfather, since he was not, as we have seen, Edward's nearest heir. However, in 1415 he led a well-trained army into France. After marching through Normandy, Henry turned northwards, like Edward III., to retreat to Calais, and was followed up by a French army much larger than his own. Again like Edward III., Henry was

The battle
of Agin-
court.

forced to fight a battle with his pursuers. This was the battle of *Agincourt*. It took place not very far from Crécy, and was quite as brilliant and magnificent a victory. Again the English archers and infantry overwhelmed the proud nobles of France. However, the victorious army was so small that all Henry could do after the battle was to make his way back to Calais.

7. A few years later, Henry again invaded Normandy, and gradually conquered it. The Normans

fought bravely against him, but they got very little help from the rest of France.

The Treaty of Troyes.

France was, in those days, in a deplorable condition. The king, *Charles VI.*, was a madman, and the French nobles thought more of fighting each other than of resisting the English invaders. There were two great parties among them. One was headed by the mad king's son, whose name was also *Charles*. The other was headed by his cousin *John, Duke of Burgundy*, a very powerful prince. At last the friends of Charles, the king's son, cruelly murdered the Duke of Burgundy. His followers were so disgusted that they made a treaty with Henry of England, by which they joined with the English. By this treaty, called the *Treaty of Troyes*, the mad king was to go on reigning for the rest of his life, but was to marry his daughter Catharine to Henry V. Moreover, as the French king could not really govern, Henry was to rule the country in Charles VI.'s name. On the mad king's death, Henry was to become king of France, and ever after the two thrones were to be united under his children by Catharine.

8. In 1422 Henry V. died. Charles VI. of France died soon afterwards, and the two thrones of France and England thus went to the baby son of Henry and Catharine, who was proclaimed king when only a few months old. Luckily, the little *Henry VI.* had a wise guardian in his uncle, *John, Duke of Bedford*, a true brother of

Henry V. Bedford strove with all his might to win for his nephew the throne of France, as well as the throne of England. Thanks to the help of Philip, the new Duke of Burgundy, Bedford managed to make most of northern France obey his nephew as king. South of the River Loire the old king's son was proclaimed Charles VII. But he was lazy and feeble, and men had not yet forgotten how he had murdered the Duke of Burgundy. The result was that neither Charles VII. nor Bedford was strong enough to beat the other. This was the worst of all things for France, which suffered terrible misery from the constant fighting.

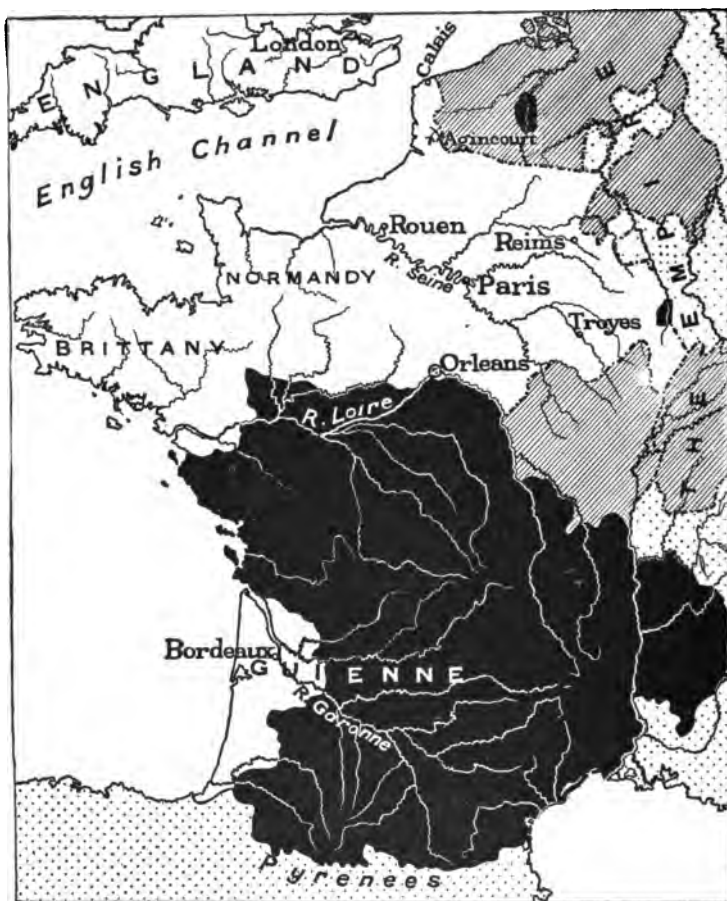
Bedford
upholds
Henry VI.'s
throne.

9. A great many Frenchmen, the Burgundian party they were called, still fought on the English side. It seems strange to us that men should side with the foreigner against their own countrymen. But Frenchmen hated each other more than they hated the English, and love of fatherland seemed dead in their breasts. At last there happened one of the most wonderful things in all history. In 1429 a country girl, named *Joan of Arc*, appeared at the Court of Charles VII. She told him that God had sent her to save France from the foreigner, and to make Charles the real king of all France. The careless king had little faith in what Joan said, but things were so desperate that he let her do what she wished.

The mission
of Joan of
Arc.

10. At that moment the English were besieging *Orléans*, and the French were on the point of yielding them the town. Joan now donned armor like a man, and forced her way at the head of a troop of soldiers into the besieged city. Her faith and courage inspired the defenders with a new spirit. Before long she drove the English from the siege. Then she led Charles to the city of *Reims*, in whose cathedral all the French

Joan
relieves
Orléans
and takes
Charles VII.
to *Reims*.



English Territory
 French
 Burgundian
 Battlefields.

Lands held by Henry VI. and Charles VII. in France about 1429.

kings were crowned. She stood by while Charles was crowned king. Then she led him back over the Loire.

11. Even now Joan's mission was not finished. She wrote to the English, telling them to go back home, as she had been commanded by God to expel them from her country. After more feats of valor she grew a little reckless, and at last fell into the hands of her enemies, who burned her to death at Rouen. She died so nobly that the rough English soldiers who watched her were stricken with awe. "We are undone," they cried, "for this maid whom we have burned is indeed a saint."

The death
of Joan.

12. The simple faith of Joan of Arc saved France from ruin. She made the French who fought for the English ashamed of themselves, and, not many years after her martyrdom, the Duke of Burgundy himself gave up the English alliance, and recognized his father's murderer, as Charles VII., the lawful King of France. Bedford struggled heroically to prevent the ruin of the English cause, but died in the same year in which France and Burgundy made peace. The English were at last forced to ask for a truce, and in return for a short period of rest, Henry VI. was married to *Margaret of Anjou*, the niece of Charles VII. Before long, however, the French renewed the war, and drove the English out of Normandy, which they had conquered thirty years before. At last, in 1453, the English were driven out of Gascony, which had been ruled by its English dukes since the days of Henry II. Of all the English king's old lands in France, Calais alone remained to him.

The fall of
the English
power in
France.

13. Henry VI. had now grown up to manhood. He was good, pious, and intelligent, but he was not strong enough, either in mind or body, to rule England. His wife, Margaret of Anjou, had the courage and force which he did not possess. People hated her because

she was a Frenchwoman, and she always thought more of helping her own friends than of helping England.

Under such a king as Henry the nobles could do what they pleased. England was soon

almost as full of bloodshed and violence as France had been. By degrees Englishmen found out that things would never get better as long as Henry was on the throne. In 1453, however, Henry suddenly went mad.

14. In their despair, men turned to his cousin, *Richard, Duke of York*. York was the grandson and heir of that

Richard, Duke of York, Earl of March who was descended from Lionel, Duke of Clarence, the second son of

Edward III. By birth, then, he was nearer the throne than the king himself. As yet, however, no one thought of making him king. When Henry went mad, York was made *Protector*. Unluckily, Henry soon recovered, and drove York from power. The best chance of good rule was thus lost.

15. York would not be put aside without a struggle. In 1455 he waged war against the king's ministers, and defeated them at the *Battle of St. Albans*.

The deposition of Henry VI. This was the beginning of thirty years of struggle. York was soon cheated out of

the fruits of victory, and once more took up arms. At last he claimed the throne, declaring that he was the rightful heir, and that all the Lancastrians were usurpers. Henry had not enough spirit to fight vigorously, even for his own rights, but Queen Margaret strove with all her might to prevent York from fulfilling his purpose. Before long she defeated and slew York, in the *Battle of Wakefield*. York's son, Edward, proved a more dangerous enemy to Margaret than his father had ever been. He marched to London, and was proclaimed King *Edward IV*. On Palm Sunday, 1461, he won the *Battle of Towton*, near York. This battle secured

the throne for Edward. Margaret fled to France, and Henry was imprisoned in the Tower of London.

Summary. Parliament makes Henry IV. king. He puts down the Lollards and rebellious nobles. Henry V. succeeds him, claims the French crown, wins the battle of Agincourt, and has the French crown assured him by Treaty of Troyes, according to which he marries the daughter of the French king, Charles VI. Henry V. and Charles VI. die. Duke of Bedford wars against France to maintain the claim of Henry V.'s baby son, Henry VI., to the French throne; Joan of Arc defeats the English, but is captured and burned. Henry VI. loses France, goes mad, and is deposed.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Why were the Lancastrian kings "constitutional kings"? Who was Wycliffe? When was Wales subdued by England? What were the battles of Crécy and Poitiers?

Days of Henry IV. and V.: Callwell, J. M., *A Champion of the Faith*; Elrington, H., *In the Days of Prince Hal*.

Agincourt: Henty, G. A., *At Agincourt*.

Henry VI.: Yonge, C. M., *Two Penniless Princesses*.

Books for Teachers. Gairdner, J., *The Houses of Lancaster and York*; Bradley, A. G., *Owen Glyndwr*; Church, A. J., *Henry V.*; Lowell, F. C., *Joan of Arc*.

CHAPTER XIX

The Yorkist Kings, 1461-1485

1. Richard, Duke of York, had begun to wage war against Henry VI. in 1455. Now, after six years' fighting, his son had become King Edward IV. Yet this was only the first part of the long fight which the two houses of York and Lancaster were to wage against each other. It was not until 1485 that the struggle ended. This period of thirty years of fighting and confusion is called the time of the *Wars of the Roses*. The Yorkists wore a white rose, and the Lancastrians were said to have worn a red rose as their badge.

2. *Edward IV.* was the first Yorkist king. He claimed the throne as the nearest heir of Edward III.; but few Englishmen cared who was the rightful heir. His real claim to rule was that he was a wiser man and better soldier than poor Henry VI. It was hoped that he would govern England more firmly than Henry had done.

3. Like Henry IV., Edward IV. found it harder to keep his throne than to win it. He had been greatly helped by *Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick*, the wealthiest of the English nobles. So powerful was Warwick that men called him the *king-maker*. Warwick now showed that he could unmake as well as make kings. Like the Percies under Henry IV., he soon found that Edward did not listen to his advice. The result was that Edward and Warwick quarrelled. For the moment Edward got the upper hand, and in 1470 Warwick was forced to flee to France.

The Wars
of the
Roses.

Edward
IV.'s claim
to the
throne.

Edward
quarrels
with
Warwick.

4. In a few months Warwick had his revenge. He made friends in France with Margaret of Anjou, and agreed to help her to restore her husband to the throne. In a few months he was back in England. This time it was Edward's turn to flee. Warwick now took Henry VI. out of the Tower, and restored him to the throne. Thus, for the second time, he earned his title of "king-maker." Indeed, he was now king in all but name, for Henry had lost his wits owing to his misfortunes, and Margaret had not yet returned from France.

Henry VI.
restored.

5. It was still easier to conquer than to hold England. In 1471 Edward IV. came back to recover his throne. On Easter Sunday he defeated and slew Warwick in the battle of *Barnet*. Margaret of Anjou soon afterwards arrived in England. Edward won another victory over her at *Tewkesbury*, and sent her back to France. Through these two battles Edward IV. was restored to the throne. Poor Henry VI. was now again his prisoner, and was soon secretly put to death. For the next twelve years Edward IV. reigned in peace. He kept good order, and summoned parliaments very seldom. He died in 1483, when still quite young.

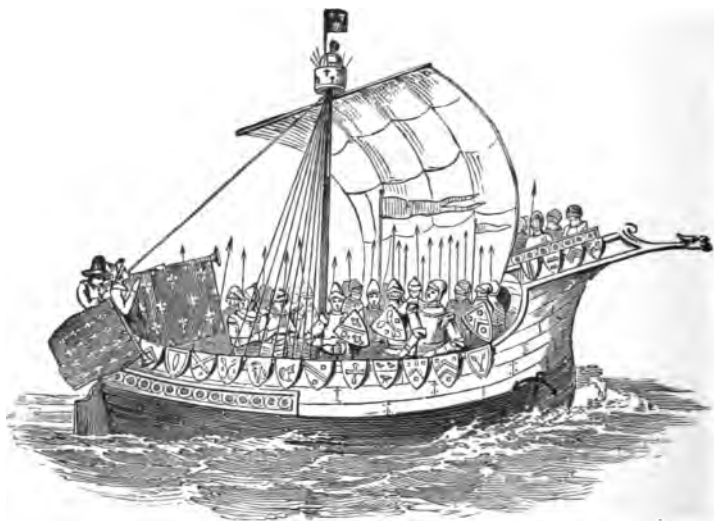
Edward IV.
wins back
the throne.

6. Edward IV. left two sons, *Edward, Prince of Wales*, and *Richard, Duke of York*. The elder of these now became King *Edward V*. He was too young to rule, so his uncle, *Richard, Duke of Gloucester*, Edward IV.'s younger brother, was made Protector.

Gloucester was a clever but cruel and ambitious man. In a few weeks he declared that his nephew had no right to the throne, and made himself king. The little Edward V. and his brother Richard, Duke of York, were shut up in the Tower, where they were probably murdered by their uncle. At any rate no one heard anything more about them.

Edward V.

7. Thus Gloucester became King *Richard III.* But he did not gain much by his wickedness. The Yorkists hated him because he had treated his *Richard III.* nephews so badly. The Lancastrians would not support him because he belonged to the other side. The heir of the House of Lancaster was now *Henry*



A Ship of the Fifteenth Century.

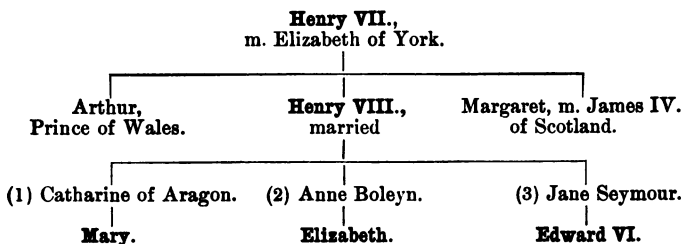
Tudor, Earl of Richmond. Henry's mother, Lady Margaret Beaufort, was a descendant of John of Gaunt, though his father was the son of a poor Welsh gentleman named Tudor. Richmond had long been in exile. In 1485 he landed at Milford Haven, in Wales, and received such support from his fellow-countrymen that he was able to make war against Richard. At the battle of *Bosworth* in Leicestershire, Richmond was victorious over Richard, who lost both crown and life on that fatal day. Thus the House of Lancaster at last won back the

throne. The Welshman, Henry Tudor, now became King *Henry VII.*

THE CHIEF BATTLES OF THE WARS OF THE ROSES.

- 1455. Battle of St. Albans.
- 1460. Battle of Wakefield.
- 1461. Battle of Towton.
- 1471. Battles of Barnet and Tewkesbury.
- 1485. Battle of Bosworth.

GENEALOGY OF THE TUDOR KINGS.



Summary. Edward IV. of York wins the throne from Henry VI. Edward falls out with the Earl of Warwick, and Warwick restores the throne to Henry VI. Edward defeats Warwick and gets back the throne. He dies, leaving the throne to Edward V., who with his brother, is made way with by Richard of Gloucester, who takes the title of Richard III. He is defeated and killed at Bosworth by Henry Tudor of the House of Lancaster.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Which house had the best claim to the throne—York or Lancaster? Who had first given the throne to the house of Lancaster and by what right? Can you see any reason why the Yorkist kings did not summon parliaments?

Barnet: Church, A. J., *The Chantry Priest of Barnet.*

Wars of the Roses: Edgar, J. G., *The Wars of the Roses*; Green, E. E., *In the Wars of the Roses*; Holt, E. S., *Red and White.*

Earl of Warwick: Lytton, Lord, *The Last of the Barons.*

Books for Teachers. Gairdner, J., *The Houses of Lancaster and York*; Oman, C. W. C., *Warwick the Kingmaker*; Thompson, E., *The Wars of Lancaster and York.*

CHAPTER XX

Lancastrian and Yorkist Period, 1399-1485

1. The changes begun in the agricultural and industrial life of the latter part of the Angevin period continued during this. Though war was going
Changes. on almost constantly the lower classes of people were little affected. In the country districts *enclosures* continued, and manufacturing slowly increased in the towns.

2. It was unfortunate for the people, but fortunate for the king, that so many nobles were killed in the Wars of the Roses. The Lancastrian kings, as they
King. owed their crowns to the will of the nobles expressed through parliament, did not have much power. The Yorkist kings got their crowns by force of arms, and as they owed nothing to parliament, they called it together but seldom. The great nobles who had given parliament its strength had been killed. So under the Yorkist kings the power of the king was almost absolute.

3. Parliament was very strong under the Lancastrians and people began to value the privilege of voting for its
Parliament. members. When representatives from the shires or counties were first called for in early times, the free landholders all had the right of voting for representatives at the meeting of the freemen in the county court. Certain men, however, began to come to the meeting who had no right to vote, and in order to prevent their voting parliament passed a law in the reign of Henry VI. which restricted the voting to free land-

holders who had an income of forty shillings (equal in present value to about \$200 in our money) a year from their land. Though this did not change the kind of men who were sent to parliament, it really made the number of men who could vote for representatives very small, because most of the land of England came to be owned by a few great families. This caused much trouble, as we shall see later.

4. During Saxon and Norman times very little had been done for education. The people of all classes were very ignorant and superstitious. The clergy were the best educated of all, because they **Education.** had to know how to read and write in order to fulfil their duties. After the twelfth century many schools arose, especially in connection with cathedrals and monasteries, where boys who were to become churchmen were taught. For those who wished to carry on their studies further, *universities* arose like *Oxford* and *Cambridge*. For the man, however, who did not wish to be a churchman, there was little opportunity to become educated. *William of Wykeham* opened a school at *Winchester* in 1393, and Henry VI. established a school at *Eton*, but even these were mainly for the clergy. In fact everybody who had much education usually became a clergyman.

5. Down to about the middle of the fifteenth century all books had to be written out and copied again and again after the same fashion if new copies were wanted. This was very laborious and **Printing.** expensive and did not spread learning very fast. About this time, however, a man in Germany named Gutenberg discovered the use of separate type and began to print books. This invention was brought over to England by William Caxton in 1477. Slowly and gradually printed books began to be circulated. Thus was education helped in another way.

Summary. Increase of the power of the king and decrease of the power of parliament. The right to vote is restricted. The people at large are uneducated. The establishment of schools and the introduction of printing helps education.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Under what other house of kings besides the House of York had the power of parliament been weak? What early king had promoted education? Does a man have to have property to vote in the United States?

Books for Teachers. (See p. viii. under Feilden and Cheyney.)

PART V.—THE TUDOR KINGS. 1485–1603

CHAPTER XXI

Henry VII., 1485–1509

1. *Henry VII.* was a cold and selfish man who never made himself loved. He was, however, far-seeing, careful, and thrifty, and wished to be king over the whole nation, and not merely the head of the House of Lancaster. He now married *Elizabeth of York*, the daughter of Edward IV. Elizabeth was by the death of her brothers the nearest heir to the Yorkist house, and Henry was, as we have seen, the representative of Lancaster. By this marriage the long disputes of the rival houses were at last settled, and the children of Henry VII. and Elizabeth could boast that they represented equally both York and Lancaster.

2. Not even his wedding with the daughter of Edward IV. could make Henry VII. welcome to the Yorkists, who formed many plots against him. The Yorkists had no longer any leaders. They were, therefore, forced to follow leaders who pretended to be members of the house of York, when really they were nothing of the sort. The most important of these was *Perkin Warbeck*. This man was the son of a poor townsman of *Tournai*, a city in the Netherlands. He now claimed to be Richard, Duke of York, the younger son of Edward IV., who

The union of
York and
Lancaster.

The impos-
ture of
Perkin
Warbeck.

was generally thought to have been murdered with his brother, Edward V., in the Tower of London. Warbeck played his part so well that many people seriously believed that he really was the Duke of York. For many years he was a dangerous enemy to Henry. All Englishmen who disliked the new king supported Perkin, and, besides his friends in England, the impostor was helped by the French and the Scots. Henry wisely made friends with the French and Scots, and persuaded them to give up supporting his enemy. Perkin did not, however, lose heart. He boldly landed in Cornwall in 1497. Now, the Cornishmen were grumbling at the severe taxes that the king forced them to pay, and many of them, therefore, helped Perkin against the king. Perkin was not, however, strong enough to face the king's soldiers, and was soon taken prisoner and shut up in the Tower. A little later he was put to death for trying to escape. With his failure the Wars of the Roses came to an end, and no one any longer disputed Henry VII.'s claim to the throne.

3. Henry tried to make himself more powerful by marrying his children to great foreign princes. The leading king in Europe in those days was *Ferdinand, King of Spain*. Henry married his eldest son, *Arthur, Prince of Wales*, to Ferdinand's daughter, Catharine of Aragon. Before long, however, Prince Arthur died, and his younger brother, *Henry*, became Prince of Wales. King Henry set so much store on the Spanish marriage that he arranged for the wedding of Catharine to the new Prince of Wales, her former husband's brother. The king thus managed to keep the great riches which Catharine had brought from Spain. At the same time he retained the king, her father, as his friend. A second royal marriage was that of Henry's eldest daughter, *Margaret*, to *James IV.*, King of Scots. The king

The
marriages
of Henry's
children.

hoped that it would make the English and Scots, who were generally fighting each other, more friendly. At first little came of this hope, but a hundred years later the great-grandson of James and Margaret became king of both England and Scotland.

4. Henry was fond of money, and his subjects grumbled at the heavy taxes which he compelled them to pay. However, he used his wealth wisely, kept good order in the land, and made even the greatest nobles obey the law. Till now the nobles had done almost what they liked.

How Henry VII. increased the royal power.

The Wars of the Roses had been caused by their constant quarrelling with each other. But Henry set up a new court of justice, which was called the *Star Chamber*, because it sat in a room whose ceiling was painted with stars. The chief work of this court was to keep the nobles in order, and force them to obey the law. Henry succeeded so well against the nobles that he became a much more powerful king than those who had gone before him.

5. Henry did what he could to encourage maritime enterprise. In his reign Christopher Columbus discovered America, and other navigators followed on his tracks and sought to explore the new world. Among them was *John Cabot*, whom

Maritime enterprise.

Henry VII. sent on a voyage of discovery to America in 1497. Though this explorer discovered Labrador, the English made no attempt to take advantage of it, and the Spaniards and French began to colonize America before them.

Summary. Henry VII. unites the claims of the Houses of York and Lancaster. He puts down the impostor, Warbeck. He allies Spain and Scotland to England by marriages, increases the power of the king, and encourages maritime enterprise.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Did Henry or Elizabeth of York have the better claim to the throne? What was the date of Columbus's discovery of America? Where was Cornwall?

Days of Henry VII.: Cowper, Frank, *The Captain of the Wight*.

Ireland in the time of Henry VII.: Green, E. E., *The Heir of Hascombe Hall*.

Books for Teachers. Moberly, C. E., *The Early Tudors*; Gairdner, J., *Henry VII*.

CHAPTER XXII

Henry VIII., 1509-1547

1. Henry, Prince of Wales, now became *Henry VIII.* He did not have to fight for his throne, as his father had done, and all Englishmen agreed that he was their lawful king. He was therefore able to be bolder and more reckless than the cold-hearted Henry VII. He was very handsome, he dressed splendidly, and amused himself in a very magnificent fashion. He made his people love him by his hearty ways. Later on the young king grew hard and cruel. At last he became little better than a tyrant. With all his faults, however, he did a great work for England.

Character of
Henry VIII.

2. Henry seemed to spend a great deal of his time on his amusements, but as he loved power better than anything else, he never neglected his duties as king. To carry out the many great schemes that he had in his mind he needed shrewd helpers. At last he found a minister after his own heart in a young clergyman named *Thomas Wolsey*, who was the son of a merchant. Wolsey rose through the king's favor to the highest posts in Church and State. He became Archbishop of York, a *Cardinal* of the Roman Catholic Church, and the legate or representative of the Pope in England. He was also *Lord Chancellor* and chief minister of the king. He grew so rich, and lived in such splendid fashion that he seemed grander than the greatest nobles. But, though proud to the nobles, he was always kind to the poor. He spent great sums of money in building schools and colleges.

Cardinal
Wolsey.

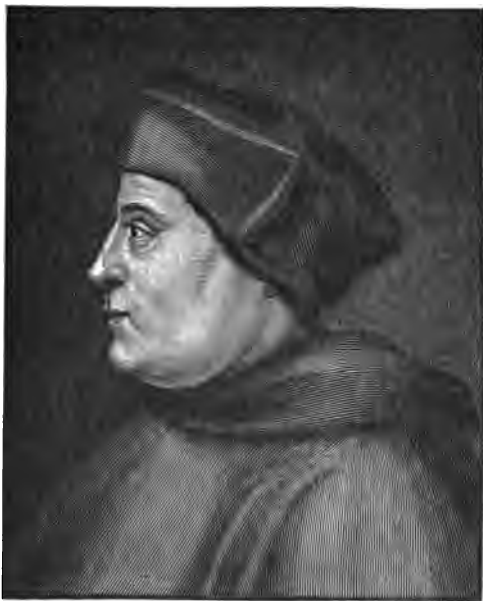


King Henry VIII.

(From a Picture belonging to the Earl of Warwick.)

3. Wolsey took great pains to make England's power again felt abroad. During the time of his ministry, Henry VIII. twice went to war against the French. The king did not win for himself much glory in those wars. Henry fought the Scots also, and gained a famous victory over his brother-in-law, James IV. of Scotland. In 1513 the Scotch king invaded England. He hoped by that to help the French by giving the Eng-

Wolsey
restores
English
power
abroad.



Cardinal Wolsey.

lish two enemies to fight at once. James was, however, beaten and killed at the Battle of *Flodden Field*. For a long time after this, Henry had no great trouble from the Scots.

4. Henry had married, as we have seen, Catharine of Aragon, the widow of his brother Arthur. The king now grew tired of her, and fell in love with a lady named *Anne Boleyn*. He became very eager to put away Queen Catharine and to marry Anne Boleyn. He found an excuse for this in pretending that his conscience made him uneasy



Catharine of Aragon.

at marrying his brother's widow. Such a marriage was against the law of the Church; but Pope Julius II. had granted Henry what was called a *dispensation*, by which he set aside the general law in this particular case. Now, however, Henry said that even the Pope had not power to do this. Accordingly he went to the new Pope, *Clement VII.*, and begged him to declare that his marriage with Catharine had never been lawful. Clement was very unwilling to fall in with the king's

request, but he did not like to offend so powerful a king as Henry. He therefore appointed Wolsey and another cardinal to try the case in England, and decide whether the marriage had been lawful or not. Henry felt sure that Wolsey would decide that it had been contrary to the law of the Church. The Pope did not give Wolsey the chance to end the business. Before the case was finished Clement ordered the trial to be begun again at Rome.

5. Henry was very angry with both the Pope and Wolsey. He could not touch the Pope, but Wolsey soon felt the force of the king's wrath. In 1529 the Cardinal was driven from all his offices and sent to his archbishopric. The next winter he was suddenly summoned to London to answer a charge of treason against the king. He died on the road, and thus escaped Henry's vengeance.

**The fall of
Wolsey.**

6. Henry had now to get his marriage declared unlawful by other means. He had till now been very friendly with the Popes, and had helped them against their enemies. For many hundreds of years all Europe had believed that the Pope was the head of the Christian Church. But in 1517 a German named *Martin Luther* had been preaching against the Pope's power, and bringing in many changes in religion. This was the beginning of what is called the *Reformation*, which soon broke up Europe into different Churches. Luther and his followers were called *Protestants*, because they protested against the Pope, while those who still followed the Pope were called *Roman Catholics*. The Protestants were now growing very numerous in northern Europe, and were giving the Pope a great deal of trouble. Hitherto Henry and England had been in favor of the Pope and against Luther. Now that the Pope would not do what Henry wished, it was clear that there would soon be a quarrel between them.

7. Finding that Clement VII. was determined not to allow him to put away Queen Catharine, Henry resolved to take the question away from the Pope altogether. He persuaded parliament to pass laws which said that the Pope had no power at all in England. It followed that the case of the queen should be tried, not in the Pope's court at Rome, but in the court of the Archbishop of

Henry VIII.
abolishes
the Pope's
power in
England.



Martin Luther.

Canterbury, the chief bishop of England. The archbishop was now *Thomas Cranmer*, a timid man, who was quite certain to do anything that the king wished. Cranmer soon declared Henry's marriage with Catharine unlawful. Thereupon the king at once wedded Anne

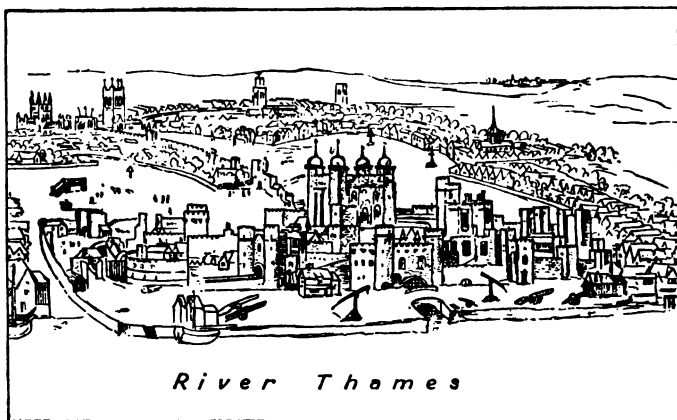
Boleyn. Soon after, parliament passed a law declaring that Henry was *Supreme Head of the Church of England*. This was called the *Act of Supremacy*. It was passed in 1534, and was the last of the many laws that put an end to the Pope's authority in England.

8. Henry was not content with getting what he wanted. He told all his subjects that they must declare that Anne Boleyn was his lawful wife, and that he was supreme head of the Church. **Execution of Sir Thomas More.** Those who refused to do this were to be put

to death as traitors. So fierce was Henry's will, and so much were his people afraid of him, that very few dared to risk their lives by setting up their opinion against the king's. A few brave men, however, ventured to withstand the king's wishes. The most important of these was *Sir Thomas More*, a very learned and good man, and a famous lawyer, and writer of a book called *Utopia*. When Wolsey had been driven from the office of Chancellor, Henry had appointed More his successor. Now the new Lord Chancellor became so disgusted with the king's acts that he gave up office. Henry soon ordered him to say that he was in favor of Anne Boleyn and against the Pope. More refused to do this, and in consequence was condemned to death as a traitor. In 1535 he was beheaded on Tower Hill, outside the Tower of London. His fate scared less bold men into obeying the fierce king.

9. Henry soon aimed a new blow against the old Church. Since the days of Augustine a great many of the most pious and devoted of Englishmen and Englishwomen had taken vows to give up the world for the sake of religion. They **The suppression of the monasteries.** were called *monks* and *nuns*, and the houses in which they lived were called *monasteries* and *nunneries*. Within them they lived very self-denying lives. They were not allowed to marry; they had nothing which they

could call their own, and they were bound to obey strictly the head of the house and the law of the community. They lived on the coarsest food, and spent most of their time in prayer and meditation. In the old days many of the best and holiest men had become monks. Among them were many of those who had taken the greatest places in English history. For instance, among the monks



The Tower of London and Neighborhood about 1550.

who had been Archbishops of Canterbury were Augustine himself, Dunstan, and Anselm. The great days of the monks, however, had long gone by. There were many careless and some wicked monks. Many monasteries were too rich, and the monks became idle and extravagant. The monks were, therefore, not so much liked by the people as they had been. Henry now thought it would be a fine way to make himself rich, if he put an end to the monasteries and seized their lands and money for himself. He called on *Thomas Cromwell*, formerly in the employ of Wolsey, to help him in the matter. Cromwell was wily, selfish, and careless of everything

but himself and his master. He soon found plenty of excuses for putting an end to the monasteries. In 1536 he began by abolishing the smaller ones. Within three years he had got rid of them all. Part of the monks' property went to the Church, but most of it went to the king. Henry used some of it to build ships and defend the country; but he gave a great deal away to his favorites and ministers, and after a few years was as poor as ever.

10. Cromwell persuaded Henry to make other changes in religion, and it looked as if the king were gradually becoming a Protestant like Luther. One of the things now done was the making of a new translation of the Bible from Latin into English. The king ordered that a copy of this English Bible should be bought for every parish church, where it was to lie open, that every one might read it.

The English Bible.

11. Cromwell, like Wolsey, did not keep the king's favor forever. Before long Henry got tired of making changes, and blamed Cromwell for being too friendly to the Protestants. Since the king had put aside Catharine of Aragon he had had several wives. He soon grew tired of Anne Boleyn, and she was beheaded. He at once married a third wife, *Jane Seymour*. This lady was the mother of Henry's only son, the future Edward VI., but she died soon after his birth. Cromwell then persuaded Henry to take as his fourth wife a German princess, *Anne of Cleves*, hoping thus to make friends with the German Protestants. Henry found that Anne was ugly and stupid, and put her away at once. His anger fell on Cromwell, who had made the match, and in 1540 he accused him of treason, and put him to death.

Anne of Cleves and the fall of Cromwell.

12. Before long the king married a fifth wife,—*Catharine Howard*, a cousin of Anne Boleyn's. She was soon beheaded like Anne, and Henry then found

a sixth wife in a young widow named *Catharine Parr*. She was more prudent than the others, and managed to outlive her husband. Some of Henry's six wives were not good women; but the king was mostly to blame for the terrible things that happened within his family. As he grew older he became more and more savage. He no longer made great changes in the Church; but he believed that he had found a "middle way" between the Protestants and the Roman Catholics. He tried to make everybody profess to believe exactly what he believed. Those who would not follow in the king's footsteps were brutally punished. Henry burned Protestants to death, because he called them *heretics*, or teachers of false doctrine. Roman Catholics he beheaded as traitors, because he said that those who did not believe in his supremacy over the Church could not be faithful to him. Cruel and merciless as he was, he kept England in good order and in peace. When he died, in 1547, such troubles arose that many were sorry that the fierce king was no longer alive to force all men into obedience to him.

13. Henry VIII. left three children. The elder ones were two daughters, *Mary*, whose mother was Catharine of Aragon, and *Elizabeth*, the child of Anne Boleyn. The third was his only son, *Edward*, Prince of Wales, the child of Jane Seymour. On his father's death this prince became Edward VI.

Summary. Henry VIII. seeks a divorce from his wife and disgraces Wolsey because the latter does not support him. Henry sets up a separate church in England because the Pope refuses a divorce. He executes More for refusing to recognize him as head of the Church. He suppresses the monasteries, puts the English Bible into use, and causes the death of his minister Thomas Cromwell.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. What does the word "Reformation" mean? When were monasteries first established in England? Was this the first translation of the Bible into English?

Destruction of the monasteries: Shipley, M. E., *Like a Rasen Fiddler*.

Resistance to the Destruction of the Monasteries: Gilliat, E., *Dorothy Dymoke*.

Last Days of Henry VIII.: Holt, E. S., *Lettice Eden*.

Times of Henry VIII.: Yonge, C. M., *The Armourer's Prentices*.

Books for Teachers. Moberly, C. E., *The Early Tudors*; Creighton, M., *Cardinal Wolsey*.

CHAPTER XXIII

Edward VI., 1547-1553; and Mary, 1553-1558

1. *Edward VI.* was a boy ten years old, not old enough to reign for himself. His uncle, *Edward Seymour, Duke of Somerset*, his mother's brother, was there-
Somerset and the English Prayer-book. fore made Lord Protector. He was to rule on his nephew's behalf. Somerset was a friend of the Reformation. He began once more to make changes in the Church. The most important of these was the great change which he made in the services. Down to this time all the prayers said in church were in Latin. The Reformers, or Protestants, believed that the prayers should be said in English, because the people could always understand their mother tongue, and only educated men could understand Latin. Somerset strongly held this view, and Archbishop Cranmer, who agreed with Somerset, set to work to turn the service-books into English, and to alter them so as to suit the new notions about religion. In 1549 he had done his task, and parliament passed a law that henceforth every church should use the new English service-book, which was called the *Book of Common Prayer*.

2. Somerset meant to do what he thought right, but many of the ministers were selfish men, whose only
Northumberland drives Somerset from power. aim was to make themselves rich. They governed England badly, and neither Somerset nor Cranmer was strong enough to keep them in order. At last, in 1549, the people rose in rebellion. Somerset was too weak to put the rebels down, and was therefore driven from power.

In his place *John Dudley, Duke of Northumberland*, became ruler of England. He was a much worse man than Somerset, but he was more resolute and strong-minded, and therefore seemed better able to rule over the English. However, he was so selfish that he thought a great deal more about himself and his family than about the king or the country. He pretended to be a very earnest Protestant, and made further changes in religion. Before long he put Somerset to death.

3. Edward VI. was a thoughtful and serious boy, and an eager Protestant. His health was poor, and he knew that he had not long to live. It troubled him greatly that his elder sister, Mary, would be Queen of England after his death. Mary, like her mother, was no friend of the new religion, and Edward feared that after he was gone she would put an end to Protestantism. Northumberland also was afraid that his power would end with the king's death. He persuaded Edward to put aside both his sisters and draw up a will in which he declared that his cousin, *Lady Jane Grey*, should be the next queen of England. Northumberland's real reason for this was that the Lady Jane was married to one of his sons, the *Lord Guildford Dudley*. But no one wished that Northumberland should go on ruling through his daughter-in-law, and every one believed that the daughters of Henry VIII. had a better right to be queens than Jane, who was the granddaughter of Henry's sister. When Edward died in 1553, Northumberland tried to make Lady Jane queen, but even the Protestants would not all support him. Lady Jane was a good and pious girl, and worthy of a better fate. She was the innocent sufferer from Northumberland's greediness. She only reigned ten days.

4. *Mary*, Edward's elder sister, then became queen, and after the cruel fashion of the time, she put Northum-

The death of
Edward VI.,
and attempt
to make Lady
Jane Grey
queen.

berland, the Lady Jane, and her husband to death. The Duke deserved his fate; but we cannot but feel

Mary Tudor becomes queen. sorry for the innocent boy and girl who perished through his ambition. Mary was a true daughter of Catharine of Aragon, and hated

the changes in religion that her father and brother had brought about. She now drove away the Protestant clergy or put them in prison. Before long she got rid of the Book of Common Prayer and brought back the Latin services. Not contented with that, she persuaded parliament to agree to recognize the power of the Pope. Thus the old state of the Church was restored as regards everything except the monasteries. The nobles had got most of the monks' lands. They were so determined not to give them up that Mary did not venture to go against their wishes.

5. Thus things were once more much as they had been before Henry VIII. put away Mary's mother.

The Spanish marriage. It was not only in religion that Mary went back to the old ways. She made friends

with Spain, her mother's country, and married her cousin, *Philip II.*, King of Spain, the most powerful king in Europe, and a leading supporter of the Pope. To please her husband, Mary went to war against the French. In the course of this war the French conquered Calais, which had belonged to the English since the days of Edward III. Mary was so grieved at losing Calais that she said, "When I die you will find Calais written upon my heart." There were many other things to make her miserable. Philip of Spain treated her very unkindly, and she began to see that the Protestants were still strong, despite all her efforts to put them down.

6. Nowadays everybody is allowed to believe what he likes, and worship God after his own fashion. This was not the case, however, in early days, and in

Mary's reign everybody was sure that it was the duty of the king or queen to put down by force all religions with which they disagreed. Henry VIII. had burned Protestants and beheaded Roman Catholics. Even Edward VI. had put some men to death for their faith. Mary now went on the same course. She was very earnest, and believed

Mary
and the
Protestants.



Thomas Cranmer.

that she was doing God's work in stamping out Protestantism. Among her victims was Archbishop Cranmer, whom she particularly hated, because he had declared that her mother's marriage to Henry VIII. was not valid. Cranmer, weak as ever almost to the last, tried to save his life by giving up his faith. But Mary was determined to put him to death. At the last moment

Cranmer repented his weakness, and died declaring his belief in the Protestant religion.

7. Mary's last years were made wretched by the feeling that, despite all that she had done, her sister Elizabeth would undo all her work as soon as she was dead. Cruel as she was against the Protestants, Mary was a well-meaning and upright woman, and her sad life should make us pity rather than blame her.

Summary. While Edward VI. is young the regents Somerset and Northumberland introduce many reforms in the new Church. On Edward VI.'s death Lady Jane Grey attempts to get the throne but is captured and put to death by Mary, who is made queen. She marries Philip II. of Spain and persecutes the Protestants. She loses Calais.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Were there any queens of England before Mary? Does the eldest child succeed to the throne in England? Was Mary to be blamed for cruelty any more than Henry VIII.?

Edward VI.: Clemens, S. L., *The Prince and the Pauper*.

Elizabeth and Mary: Mathew, Frank, *The Royal Sisters*.

Persecutions by Mary: Weyman, S. J., *The Story of Francis Cludde*.

Books for Teachers. Moberly, C. E., *The Early Tudors*, Creighton, M. *The Tudors and the Reformation*.

CHAPTER XXIV

Elizabeth, 1558-1603

1. *Elizabeth*, the new queen, was good-looking, hard-working, and well educated. She was a true daughter of Henry VIII., and like her father in many ways, though never so cruel as he became. Elizabeth, her ministers and favorites. She had the same hearty manners that had made Henry popular. She was very vain and selfish, and loved to be flattered. Mean in most things, she never cared how much money she wasted in amusing herself, or in buying fine dresses, or in making presents to her favorites. But she was wise in great things, and followed the advice of wise ministers. Elizabeth loved power and ruling more than anything else in the world. She made up her mind that she would never marry, because she would not share her throne even with a husband.

2. Elizabeth's first business was to settle the future of the Church. She once more put an end to the power of the Pope in England, and got rid of the Latin services. She brought back the English Prayer-book of Edward VI., and drove from their bishoprics all those bishops who remained faithful to the teaching of Queen Mary's days. She was very careful not to alter things too much, and liked the ways of her father better than those of her brother. The Church finally reformed.

3. Before long the thorough-going Protestants complained that the queen did not go far enough for them. They asked for further changes in the Church, and disliked many of the forms and ceremonies that the queen

still kept up. They thought that it was not right that clergymen should wear white surplices when reading prayers in church, and some of them did not believe in the rule of the Church by bishops. Elizabeth and the Puritans. These extreme men were called *Puritans*, because they wished for greater purity in the Church.

4. Though the Puritans gave Elizabeth a great deal of trouble, they agreed with her in opposing the *Roman Catholics*. Elizabeth put many of the Puritans into prison and took away the "livings" from the Puritan clergy. She was much more stern to the Roman Catholics, who still wished to keep up the power of the Pope. She expected everybody to attend church and listen to the Book of Common Prayer. If they refused, she made them pay large sums of money to her. The friends of the Pope were afraid lest her stern policy should drive out their way of thinking altogether from England. After a few years they began to send Roman Catholic missionary clergymen to England to keep up the love for the old doctrines. Nor was this all. The Pope declared that Elizabeth had no right to be queen of England. This made it hard for a man to be both a good Roman Catholic and a loyal subject of Elizabeth. It gave Elizabeth a good excuse for going back to the old policy of Henry VIII., who had put Roman Catholics to death as traitors. She began to persecute Roman Catholics for their religion as Mary her sister had persecuted Protestants for theirs.

5. Elizabeth had a great deal of trouble abroad. She was afraid both of France and Spain. At first the King of France was her most dangerous enemy. He had married *Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots*, the granddaughter of Margaret Tudor and King James IV. Mary Stuart had been Queen of Scotland ever since she was a baby.

Mary Stuart
and the Ref-
ormation in
Scotland.

She had been brought up in France, and was more of a Frenchwoman than a Scot. She was beautiful and



Queen Elizabeth.

talented, but ambitious and unscrupulous. As long as she was Queen of France she was a real danger to

Elizabeth. Her husband soon died, and then she went back to Scotland. She was, however, a Roman Catholic, and the Scots had lately become Protestants. Now, the Scotch Protestants were not Protestants like Queen Elizabeth. They were strong Puritans, who got rid of all the old ceremonies and would not allow bishops to rule their Church. The Scotch Protestant Church became what is called *Presbyterian*, — that is to say, it had no bishops, but was governed by little meetings of ministers, who were called *presbyters*, or elders. Naturally, Mary did not get on well with the Presbyterians.

6. The persecuted English Catholics would have been glad to get rid of Elizabeth and make Mary their queen.

Mary Stuart in Scotland. There were more Catholics in England than in Scotland, so that she had a better chance in England than in Scotland. The Scotch

Protestants were too much afraid of Mary to allow her to rule over them as she pleased. Before long she fell into serious trouble in her own country. She had married as her second husband a cousin of hers, *Lord Darnley*. Darnley was a very foolish and jealous man, and Mary soon began to hate him. After a time Darnley was murdered, and everybody in Scotland believed that his wife had set his murderers to work. The Scots rose in revolt against Mary, and shut her up in a lonely castle, and made her baby son, James, King *James VI.* in her place. Before long Mary escaped from her prison and strove to win back her throne. She was, however, defeated in battle, and ran away to England.

7. Mary now asked Elizabeth for help. Instead of giving her assistance, Elizabeth put her in captivity.

Mary Stuart in England. Mary in her prison was even more formidable to Elizabeth than she had been when she was Queen of France and Scotland. The

Catholics looked upon her as the Queen of England, and rose in revolt to raise her to the throne. After

Elizabeth had put down their rebellion, they continued to make conspiracies in Mary's favor. Elizabeth's ministers believed that as long as Mary lived Elizabeth would never be safe. They at last accused Mary of having a share in an attempt to murder Elizabeth, and brought her up for trial at *Fotheringay* Castle, in Northamptonshire. In 1587 Mary was condemned and beheaded.

8. With Mary's death Elizabeth's worst dangers passed away. Mary's son, James VI. of Scotland, was a Protestant, and a good friend of Elizabeth.

Protestant Scotland had given up the old alliance between Scotland and France, since France still remained a Catholic country, and the Scots hated Catholics above all others.

England and
Scotland
become
more
friendly.

So, for the first time since the reign of Edward I., England and Scotland were becoming really friendly. This was the more important, since James VI. was the next heir to the English throne after Elizabeth's death.

9. In her early years Elizabeth kept on fairly good terms with her brother-in-law, Philip II. of Spain.

Philip, as a Catholic, hated Elizabeth's religion, but he wanted Elizabeth's support against the French. England and Spain,

Elizabeth
and Philip
of Spain.

however, soon began to quarrel with each other. To begin with, the English were Protestants, and the Spaniards Roman Catholics, and in those days religious feeling ran so high that it seemed natural that Protestants and Catholics should always be fighting with each other. Now, there was one country ruled by Philip of Spain where there were a great many Protestants. This was the Netherlands, and especially that part of the northern Netherlands called *Holland*. Philip cruelly persecuted the Protestants of Holland, and at last the Dutch, as the people of the Netherlands are called, rose in revolt against him. The English helped the Dutch to win

their independence from King Philip. This made Philip very angry, and he tried to pay them back by helping all the conspiracies in favor of Mary Stuart. He was the more angry as he was unable to put down

the Dutch. They set up a free commonwealth called the *United Netherlands*, which took in all the north of that country. Only the southern Netherlands, which were Catholic, remained under Philip's rule.

10. Englishmen and Spaniards soon had other things to quarrel about besides religion. The discovery of America. We have seen how



Walker & Cockerell sc.
Revolted Provinces shaded thus:-
Spanish Netherlands " " " "

Map to illustrate the Revolt of the Spanish Netherlands.

in the days of Henry VII., *Christopher Columbus* had discovered the new world called *America*. Though Columbus was an Italian, he was in the service of King Ferdinand of

Spain, and his discovery gave the Spaniards the first chance of getting America for themselves. By the time of Philip II. the Spaniards had enormous possessions in America. In Spanish America there were many rich silver-mines, and every year great fleets of Spanish ships sailed from America laden with the treasures of her mines.

11. Before the days of Elizabeth few Englishmen were fond of the sea, but the stories of the wonderful discoveries made in remote regions of the globe now made them long to travel and win glory and profit. Thus English seamen began to be seen in distant parts of the world, but wherever they went they found the Spaniards were

Quarrels of English and Spanish seamen.

already in possession. They became angry when they discovered that the Spaniards would not allow them to trade peacefully with their colonies. They soon saw that the Spanish colonies were too large to be easily protected, and that it was not a very difficult thing to rob the Spaniards. Before long no part of the Spanish Empire was safe from the English sailors. Most of them were zealous Protestants, and believed that they were helping religion by plundering the Catholic Spaniards.

12. The most famous of these English seamen was *Sir Francis Drake*. Between 1577 and 1580 he sailed round the world, coming back safely to England with his ship laden with Spanish plunder. He was the first Englishman

**Drake's
voyage round
the world.**

to make a voyage round the world. Another bold seaman, *Sir Martin Frobisher*, tried to discover a northwest passage to India by sailing to the north of North America.

13. All these things made the English and Spanish bitter foes to each other. At last Philip II. resolved to send out a great fleet with which he might conquer England and be revenged on the people who had done him so much mischief.

**The Invin-
cible Armada
defeated.**

This fleet was so large and so finely fitted out that the Spaniards called it the *Invincible Armada*, that is, the fleet which could not be conquered. In the summer of 1588 the Armada appeared in the English Channel. The English had beaten the Spaniards so often before that they were not afraid of them now. Elizabeth made *Lord Howard of Effingham* the admiral of her fleet, and under him were Drake, Frobisher, and other old sailors of great experience who were lifelong enemies of the Spaniards. The English fleet remained at Plymouth until the Spaniards had sailed past that port on their way up the Channel. Then the English ships came out of harbor and closely pursued the Spanish fleet. The English ships were smaller than the Spanish, but were

better managed, and could sail much more quickly. The English were therefore able to attack the Spaniards when they liked, and could always sail away from them if they found them too strong to fight. In this way they worried the Spaniards so much that they gradually lost all heart. Then the English fleet fell upon the Spaniards and defeated them in a pitched battle in the Straits of



A War Ship of the Sixteenth Century.

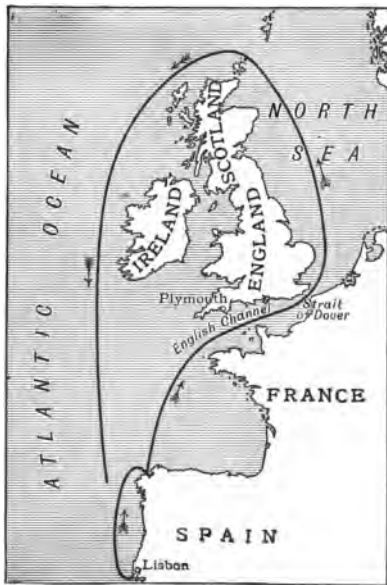
Dover. Many of the Spanish ships were destroyed, and the rest had to make their way homeward by sailing round the north coast of Scotland. Terrible storms spread further havoc among the fugitive Spanish ships, and few reached home in safety.

14. Elizabeth's victory over the Armada made her very famous over all Europe. She remained at war with Spain for the rest of her life, and gained many other victories over the Spaniards. From those days onward Englishmen have remained foremost as sailors and discoverers.

**Elizabeth's
victories over
Spain.**

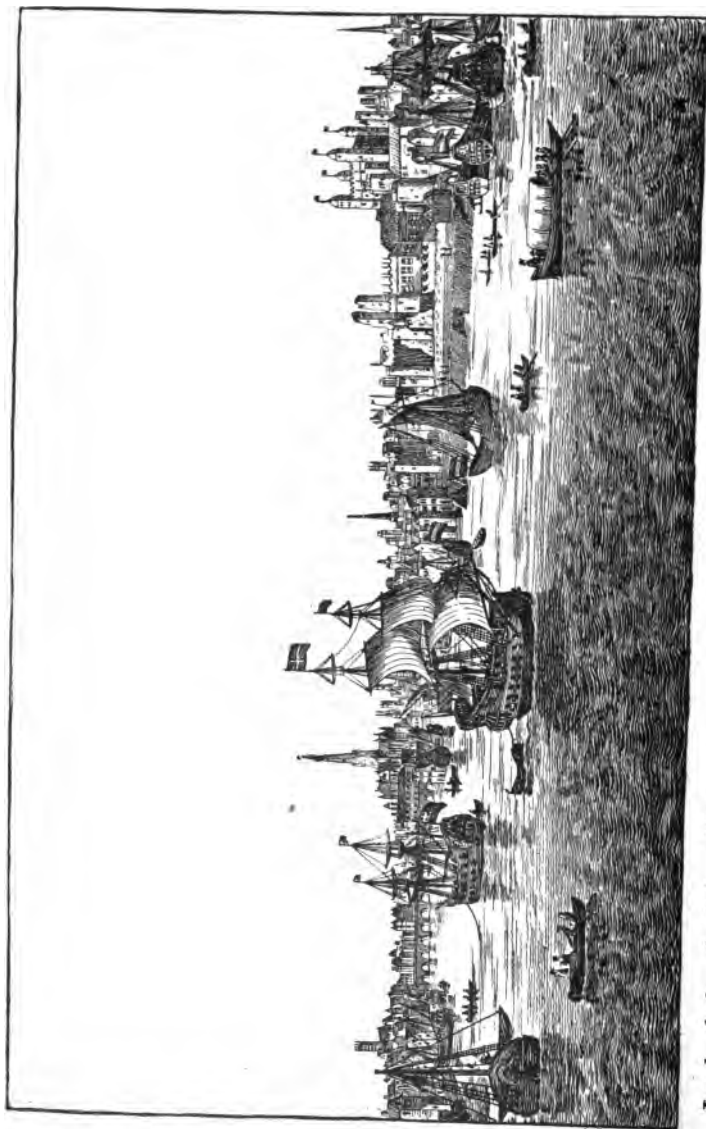
15. In Elizabeth's reign, Ireland was first really conquered by England. Since Henry II.'s days the King of England had had some little power in Ireland. But only the district round *Dublin*, the Irish capital, was really ruled by the English kings. The rest of Ireland was governed by a large number of

The Tudor
conquest of
Ireland.



The Route of the Spanish Armada.

chieftains, each of whom could do almost as he liked. Henry VIII. was the first king who resolved he would make himself real master of all Ireland. Not satisfied with the title of *Lord of Ireland*, borne by every king since Henry II., he called himself *King of Ireland*. The work that Henry VIII. had begun had to be done over again by his younger daughter. Elizabeth, however, had great difficulties to meet. The Irish remained strong



London before the Spire of St. Paul's was burned. Showing also the Bridge, the Tower, Shipping, etc.

Roman Catholics, and called on Philip of Spain to help them. They rose in three separate rebellions, and each of these gave the queen a great deal of trouble. At last, at the end of the old queen's life, Ireland was thoroughly subdued. The Irish, however, bitterly hated the English, and the English too often despised the Irish, and treated them cruelly.



William Shakespeare.

(From the Bust at Stratford-on-Avon.)

16. The latter part of the reign of Elizabeth is marked by many important events. The Spaniards were beaten; Ireland was conquered; the voyages of Elizabeth's seamen were adding to trade, and increasing the knowledge of the remotest parts of the world. England was prosperous, happy, and contented. The rich lived more

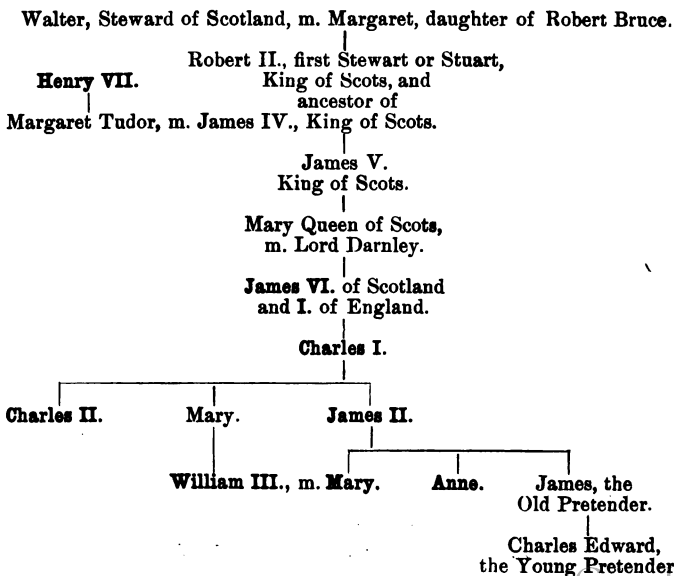
luxuriously and elegantly, and the poor had better wages, and became more comfortable. The most wonderful

thing of all was the large number and fine quality of the poems, books, and plays which were written by Englishmen. It was the

The events of the end of Elizabeth's reign.

age of *William Shakespeare*, the greatest of all writers of plays, in whose dramas and poems we can still read all the energy, vigor, and movement of this most famous reign. In her reign *Edmund Spenser* wrote his *Faerie Queene* and *Sir Francis Bacon* some of his famous *Essays*. It was now that Englishmen began to be more restless, active, enterprising, curious, and eager than they had ever been before. For this reason we are often told that Modern Times really begin with the age of the great queen.

GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF STUART.



Summary. Elizabeth reforms the Church and persecutes both Puritans and Catholics. She puts Mary Queen of Scots to death as a dangerous rival. She supports the Netherlands against Spain. Drake voyages round the world. The Invincible Armada is defeated. Ireland is conquered. Elizabeth's reign ends gloriously.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Whose daughter was Elizabeth? Why could not Elizabeth be queen and also believe in Roman Catholicism? What does the word "armada" mean?

Ireland in Elizabeth's Time: Reed, T. B., *Sir Ludar*.

Mary, Queen of Scots: Yonge, C. M., *Unknown to History*.

Wars of Elizabeth: Tillotson, J., *Stories of the Wars*.

Drake: Henty, G. A., *Under Drake's Flag*.

Elizabeth: Scott, Sir Walter, *Kenilworth*; Tappan, E. M., *In the Days of Queen Elizabeth*.

Explorers: Kingsley, C., *Westward Ho!*

Netherlands: Pollard, E. F., *A Gentleman of England*; Henty, G. A., *By England's Aid*.

Armada: Holt, E. S., *Clare Avery*.

Sea Fights: Leighton, R., *The Golden Galleon*.

Books for Teachers. Creighton, M., *Age of Elizabeth*; Rait, R. S., *Mary, Queen of Scots*; Beesly, E. S., *Elizabeth*; Froude, J. A., *English Seamen*; Corbett, J., *Drake*.



Milled Half-sovereign of Elizabeth (1561-1572).

CHAPTER XXV

The Tudor Period, 1485-1603

1. Under the Tudors England lost its mediæval character, feudalism practically became extinct, and the king's power became absolute. In the country districts enclosures still continued, while in commerce, manufactures, and education great progress was made.

2. Feudalism received its death blow in the Wars of the Roses, when so many of the great barons were killed.

Feudalism. As early as the time of Henry II. the king had tried to come into direct contact with all his subjects and to be independent of the support of the feudal lords. As time went on this was gradually accomplished. Scutage, circuit courts, and the decay of the manor and of villeinage helped to bring it about. Even before the Wars of the Roses the feudal system was rather thoroughly broken, and those wars destroyed it. The lands of the dead barons went back to the king and he gave them out to a new nobility. The new nobles were not great warriors, but rich men or tried officials who supported the king in parliament. Many of the vexatious dues of the feudal system still remained after this period, but they were soon abolished.

3. Nominally at the opening of the Tudor period the parliament had many rights which the king should respect. But parliament was weak and was filled with supporters of the king. The king proceeded to make laws and levy taxes in a manner which he had not dared to do before. Par-

**King and
parliament.**

liament even went so far as to declare, in 1539, that the king's proclamations had the force of law. Under the circumstances it is not surprising that the Tudors called parliament together very seldom.

4. Under the Tudors two new and very tyrannical courts were established. One, the *Court of Star Chamber*, has already been mentioned. It tried crimes and almost any other case the king wished **Justice.**

to bring before it. Terrible punishments were inflicted by it, but at first it did good service in making rich nobles obey the law. After the Reformation there arose under Elizabeth another court—called the Court of High Commission—which dealt with church cases and became very tyrannical.

5. Agriculture was unprofitable during almost the whole of this period. This was due to many causes. In many cases the soil had been worked out and gave very poor crops. The manorial **Agriculture.** system and villeinage had largely died out. Men who were farmers now were usually freemen (called yeomen), renting small farms, or were free agricultural laborers working on the farms of others. Small farms would not pay, and were gradually being taken up by the large landowners. Owners of large farms let them out for tillage or for sheep-farming. For the latter purpose more and more enclosures took place. As only a few shepherds were necessary to tend the sheep, many agricultural laborers and small tenants were thrown out of employment. In some places the misery was so great that there were risings of the farmers.

6. During this period England sent less and less raw wool abroad, but manufactured it into cloth at home. On account of the troublesome regulations of the craft-gilds of the large towns the manufac- **Industry.** ture of cloth was more and more transferred to small villages. In many cases a weaver worked in his own

home and at his own loom. More frequently some *master clothier* with plenty of money employed various weavers and apprentices to work for him at his home or at theirs. In this manner cloth, and not raw wool, was becoming the great article of export from England.

7. Internal trade was carried on as before at markets and fairs. The discoveries and adventures of
Commerce.

Drake led the English to engage in foreign trade in their own ships. The Venetian fleet ceased to come to England and Elizabeth abolished the Steelyard. This gave the English a better chance to carry their goods to foreign lands.

8. Colet and Erasmus, two great scholars of the time of Henry VII.,
Education.

were much interested in promoting education in England. Colet founded St. Paul's School in London. Henry VIII. and Edward VI. established schools which were in a way to take the place of the old monastery schools. They did not establish enough of them to do this, but those they did establish were very important. They were important because they did not train for the Church alone, but also gave an education to those who were not going to become Churchmen.

9. Though gunpowder had been known since the time of the Hundred Years' War, no arms had been invented
Firearms.

to make its use very effective in war. Now, however, firearms began to displace rapidly the older weapons of the Middle Ages. They were an important factor in the decay of feudalism and chivalry.



Armor as worn during Elizabeth's reign, even though firearms had come into use.

Firearms put a weak man on an equality with a strong man, and made infantry as strong as cavalry.

Summary. The feudal nobility dies out and the king becomes supreme over parliament. Justice is harshly administered. Agriculture declines, but manufactures and commerce grow. Better schools and better firearms are introduced.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. What was scutage; circuit courts; the feudal system? Explain the name: Court of Star Chamber. Find out as much as you can about a loom and about weaving. What had become of the monastery schools?

Books for Teachers. (See 'Suggestions,' p. viii. — Feilden and Cheyney.) Montague, F. C., *The Elements of English Constitutional History*.

PART VI. — THE STUART KINGS. 1603-1714

CHAPTER XXVI

James I., 1603-1625

1. For more than a hundred years the Welsh *House of Tudor* had ruled England. Now, on Elizabeth's death, was to come the turn of the Scottish *House of Stuart*. This famous family had now been reigning in Scotland since the days of Edward III. Its ancestor, the Steward of Scotland, married a daughter of Robert Bruce, and their son thus became King of Scots. In 1603 the Steward's descendant, James VI. of Scotland, became *James I.* of England. James was the son of Mary, Queen of Scots, and the great-great-grandson of Henry VII. Thus, after a hundred years, the good results which Henry VII. had hoped for from the marriage of his daughter Margaret with James IV. of Scotland were at last brought about. For hundreds of years the English and Scots had always been quarrelling with each other. Now they were brought together peaceably under the rule of a single king. James was proud of being the king of the two countries. Not content with being styled King of England and Scotland, he described himself *King of Great Britain*. Before very long people born in either England or Scotland called themselves *Britons*, though this was really the old name of the Welsh.

2. James was king of Ireland as well as of Great Britain. At the time he came to the English throne

the slow conquest of Ireland by the English had just been finished. But the Irish were mostly Roman Catholics, and hated the English. James thought it would be a good plan to settle in Ireland and Ireland. a large number of English and Scotch Protestants who would be loyal to him. He drove the native Irish from



The shaded part shows the Protestant districts in Ireland, which resulted from James I's Plantations.

their lands in eastern Ulster, and gave them to Englishmen and Scotchmen. This was called the *Plantation of Ulster*. The Plantation of Ulster is the reason why the northeast corner of Ireland is still mainly Protestant and English.

3. Mindful of the fact that he ruled over Great Britain and Ireland, James I. adopted a new style of royal

arms. Since Edward III. had claimed the French crown the royal arms of England had consisted of the three lions of England and the three lilies of France. To these James I. now added the rampant lion of Scotland and the harp of Ireland. These arms continued to be borne by English kings until about a hundred years ago, when the unmeaning French lilies were at last given up.

4. Under James I. the English Colonial Empire began. The sailors and explorers of Elizabeth's reign had shown the way to the fresh and untilled lands of North America. Soon after James became king, the first successful English colonies were planted in the new world. The first of these to be established was called *Virginia*. It took its name from Queen Elizabeth, the virgin queen. During her reign Sir Walter Raleigh had



Royal Arms borne by James I. and succeeding Stuart Sovereigns.

made unsuccessful attempts to have it colonized. The first permanent settlement, however, was made in 1607, after Raleigh's disgrace and imprisonment. A little later other colonies were set up in the colder lands that lay far north of Virginia. This district was called *New England*, and most of those who settled there were Puritans. Under the leadership of such men as *John Carver* and *John Winthrop* they left their

homes in the old England because James, like Elizabeth, would not let them worship God after their own fashion. They were very steady, hard-working, and thrifty men, and were just the right sort to inhabit a new land. Before

long both New England and Virginia became very prosperous, and other colonies were added to them. These were the lands which have since become the *United States of America*. English traders now began to take ship with their goods to the distant regions of the East, and particularly to *India*. A company of merchants trading to India was established at the end of Elizabeth's



The New England Colonies, Virginia, New York, and Carolina.

reign. This was called the *East India Company*, and it soon began to be very prosperous. Other companies, such as the *London Company* and the *Plymouth Company*, were organized to develop respectively Virginia and New England. All these changes made the England that James I. ruled over very much like modern England. Henceforth British history is not the history of one or two little islands. We have to tell of the fortunes of Englishmen all over the world.

5. At this same time great changes were beginning in England itself, and especially in the way in which England was ruled. All the Tudor kings had governed England much as they liked, and had almost made themselves despots. The Stuart kings found that they could not go on ruling as the Tudors had ruled. This was partly their own fault. They were not so wise nor so strong as Henry VIII. or Elizabeth. There were other reasons besides this. Englishmen were now thinking and acting for themselves, and believed that they ought to have a share with the king in the government of the country. The result was that parliament, which had supported the Tudors, began to oppose the Stuarts. A contest between king and parliament began under James I., and lasted as long as the Stuarts reigned in England. In the long run parliament got the better of the kings, and so set up that free England in which parliament, which the people choose, and not the king, has the chief share in ruling the country.

**The Stuarts
quarrel with
their
parliaments.**

6. James I. wanted to govern England as Elizabeth had ruled, but he did not know how to carry on her policy. Though he was learned and shrewd, he was conceited, lazy, and cowardly. He never understood Englishmen. He was not thrifty and saving, like Elizabeth, but was always in want of money. His chief way of getting money was by asking parliament to raise new taxes for him. He took no trouble to please his parliaments, and was always quarrelling with them. He therefore got very small supplies from them, and they were always grumbling at what he did.

**Character of
James I.**

7. In religious matters James treated those who disagreed with the English Church almost as severely as Elizabeth had done. He was so hard on the Puritans that, as we have seen, many of them fled from his

persecution to America. Though his mother had been a Roman Catholic, he treated Roman Catholics very severely. Some of the Catholics were so disgusted at his harshness that they formed **The Gunpowder Plot.** plots against him, as they had against Queen Elizabeth. The most famous of these was made in 1605, and called the *Gunpowder Plot*. This was a plan to blow up with gunpowder the king and all his parliament. *Guy Fawkes*, a daring soldier, hired a cellar underneath the House of Lords, and filled it with gunpowder. On November 5, 1605, the king was to come down to the House of Lords to open parliament, and then Fawkes was to fire the powder. Luckily James's ministers found out all about the plot, and Fawkes and the other conspirators were put to death. The Protestants were terribly frightened, and the cruel laws against the Catholics were carried out more strictly than ever, though only a few Catholics had any part in the scheme.

8. James I. was a weak man, who easily fell under the rule of favorites. The chief of these was *George Villiers*, whom James made *Duke of Buckingham*. Buckingham was also a great **The Duke of Buckingham.** friend of the king's eldest son, Charles, Prince of Wales. The old king used to call Buckingham "Steenie," and his son "Baby Charles," and made people laugh at the foolish ways in which he showed his affection.

9. James was fond of peace. As soon as he became king he ended the long war with Spain. He was always anxious to be friendly with the Spaniards, and at last proposed that his son Charles should marry an *Infanta*, that is to say, a **James and the Spanish marriage.** daughter of the Spanish king. The English did not like the match, because they wished Charles to marry a Protestant. Even the Spaniards were not in earnest about

it, because they were unwilling for their king's daughter to marry a heretic. They pretended to wish for the marriage, in order to keep James friendly to them against their enemies.



George Villiers, First Duke of Buckingham (1592-1628).

(From the Picture in the National Portrait Gallery.)

10. Years passed away, and the Spanish marriage still remained unsettled. At last Prince Charles grew impatient. He set out for Spain, and took Buckingham with him. He had never seen the Infanta, and thought

that, if they got to know each other, there was more chance of her being willing to marry him. When he reached Spain he soon found out that the Infanta did not like him, and that the Spaniards would never let her marry a Protestant. He went back to England in a rage, and persuaded the old king to go to war against Spain. Soon afterwards, however, James I. died, in 1625.

Failure of
the mar-
riage and
death of
James.

Summary. Union of England and Scotland and Ireland under one king. Colonies founded in America. James quarrels with parliament. The Gunpowder Plot. The marriage of Prince Charles to the Spanish Infanta falls through.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Did the Spanish and French establish colonies in America for the same reasons that the English did? Why did James want to be friendly with the Spaniards? Why did parliament quarrel with the Stuarts and not with the Tudors?

Times of James: Frith, H., *For Queen and King*.

Character of James: Scott, W., *The Fortunes of Nigel*.

The Gunpowder Plot: Green, E. E., *The Lost Treasure of Trevlyn*; Holt, E. S., *It Might Have Been*.

The Spanish Marriage: Ainsworth, W. H., *The Spanish Match*.

Books for Teachers. Gardiner, S. R., *The First Two Stuarts and the Puritan Revolution*; Traill, H. D., *Social England*, vol. iv. (illustrated edition); Mackinnon, J., *The Union between England and Scotland*.

CHAPTER XXVII

Charles I., 1625-1649

1. Prince Charles now became King *Charles I.* He was good-looking, serious, and dignified. But he was

Charles I. and Buckingham. not so shrewd as his father, and was neither clear-headed nor straightforward.

He thought more about himself than about his people, and was never to be trusted thoroughly. He was even more under Buckingham's influence than James had been. Buckingham was hated by the people, and so King Charles had no chance of making himself popular, because he was Buckingham's friend. Charles quarrelled with his parliaments even more bitterly than James I. had done. Yet the new king needed the help of parliament even more than his father. James had generally been at peace, but Charles was at war with Spain, and required much money in order to pay soldiers and sailors to fight his enemies. When he asked his parliaments for money, they answered that they would not vote him new taxes unless he gave up his friendship for Buckingham. Charles refused to do this, and sent his parliaments home full of anger against the king and his favorite.

2. As parliament would not help him, Charles turned for aid to the King of France, and married *Henrietta*

War with France and Spain. *Maria*, the sister of the French king. This match was not popular in England, because the new queen was a Roman Catholic.

Moreover, it brought Charles little real support from France. In a short time he quarrelled with France as

well as with Spain. This fresh war made him more helpless than ever, and gave parliament a good chance to have its own way.



Charles I.

3. In 1628 a new parliament met. It drew up a document called the *Petition of Right*. This demanded that Charles should never raise taxes or loans without consent of parliament, or put people in prison except for lawful reasons. Charles was forced to consent to this, because he could only thus obtain enough supplies to fight France and Spain. It was the first great victory that parliament had won over the king since parliament had driven Richard II. from the throne. The Tudor despotism now came to an end.

4. Charles did not get much good from his submission. He prepared an army and fleet to fight the French, but nothing came of all his efforts. **Charles sends away his parliament.** Buckingham, who was to have been general of the expedition, was murdered, and Charles was forced to make peace both with France and Spain. Parliament soon met again, and complained that Charles had not honestly kept the Petition of Right, because he still raised customs duties called *tonnage and poundage*, which parliament had never granted him. It denounced Charles so bitterly that the king thought it wise to put an end to parliament. For the next eleven years he ruled without any parliament at all.

5. During these years Charles had to raise money as best he could. He was afraid to raise regular taxes which parliament had not sanctioned, but **John Hampden resists ship-money.** he tried by all sorts of shrewd tricks to get supplies in ways which did not seem to be against the law. He found out that in earlier days kings had raised a tax for building ships of war, without a grant by parliament. This tax was called *ship-money*. Charles now called upon all his subjects to pay him ship-money. A Buckinghamshire gentleman named *John Hampden* refused to pay this tax. He said that no tax was lawful unless it had been specially agreed upon by parliament. The judges, however, decided against Hampden, and declared that the king might raise ship-money if he wished. Though the king got some money by this means, he made himself much disliked, and everybody praised Hampden for his bravery in resisting the king's will.

6. Charles's way of dealing with religious matters disgusted his subjects even more than his attempts to raise money. He was more opposed to the Puritans than even Elizabeth and James I. had been. He chose for his chief adviser

Laud and the Puritans.

in affairs connected with the Church *William Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury*. Laud was a learned, hard-working, and pious man, but he was too fond of interfering with things that he had better have left alone. He was so bitterly opposed to the Puritans that



John Hampden.

they thought him little better than a Roman Catholic. He loved to make the worship of God stately and beautiful, and his enemies said that he was upsetting the work done at the Reformation.

7. Laud and Charles were not contented with driving the Puritans out of the Church in England. They wanted to make the Puritan Church of Scotland more like the English Church. The Scotch Presbyterians were now forced to obey the rule of bishops. At last

Laud drew up a Prayer-book which Charles ordered the Scots to use for divine service. The Scots hated all set forms of worship, and thought Laud's Prayer-book worse than the English Book of Common Prayer. They refused to obey the king, and rose in revolt against him. Charles found that neither English nor Scots would fight for him. He wasted what little money he had in trying to force the Prayer-book on the Scots. He utterly failed to do what he wished. At last Charles was forced to make peace with them. He gave up the Prayer-book and the bishops. Thus the Scotch Church once more became Presbyterian, and the success of the Scots encouraged the English also to oppose their king.

8. After Laud, Charles's chief adviser was *Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford*. Wentworth was a vigorous, fierce, able man, who liked to see the king's power strong. He and Laud called their plans for ruling the people "thorough." Wentworth was made governor of Ireland, and there he set up the king's power very fully. He made himself hated through his despotic and harsh ways, and there was a great outcry against both him and Laud.

9. Charles was now again in urgent want of money. He was therefore obliged once more to call a parliament.

In 1640 a parliament met, which sat for so many years that men called it the *Long Parliament*. As in 1628, Charles was quite helpless, and was obliged to do what the parliament told him to do. Its leader was John Hampden, the man who had denied the king's right to levy ship-money. Under his guidance the members of this parliament began to attack Charles and his ministers very severely.

10. The men of the Long Parliament hated and feared Strafford more than any of the rest. They therefore

passed a law that Strafford should be put to death because he had done so much harm to the country by upholding the king. Charles had to agree to this law before Strafford could be executed under it. He was so afraid of parliament that he did not dare to refuse to pass it. Strafford was therefore beheaded on Tower Hill. As he laid down his head on the block, he said, "Put not your trust in princes." Archbishop Laud was shut up in the Tower. There he remained for several years, until he also was executed like Strafford. He was quite an old man, and it was a cruel thing to treat him so harshly. But when he had been in power he had been very severe against the Puritans. Now that the Puritan parliament had a chance of being revenged, it took it.

**Fall of
Strafford
and Laud.**

11. The Long Parliament passed many wise laws, which were so framed that they made it impossible for any king to rule as Charles had done without the support of parliament. Hampden and many of its leaders were very strongly in favor of the Puritans. They now wanted to change the whole system of the Church, so as to get rid of the bishops and the Prayer-book and to make the English Church Presbyterian like the Church in Scotland. Many people, who had agreed with them in punishing Strafford and Laud and in cutting down the king's power, thought that this was going too far. As Charles was very strongly against these changes in the Church, the friends of bishops and the Prayer-book began to support him. Perhaps they thought that he could not do much harm now that his bad counsellors had been driven away and his own power checked by the new laws that had been passed.

**Charles gets
the Church
party on
his side.**

12. Charles now had a great many people on his side. As long as almost everybody was against him he had been quite helpless, but now he plucked up his courage

and began to think of fighting his parliament. He still made many blunders and disgusted his friends by his want of straightforwardness. This **Beginning of the great Civil War.** led parliament to wish to cut down his power still more. Charles thought he was strong enough to resist this, and in 1642 went to war against parliament.

13. The *Great Civil War* lasted for more than four years. Englishmen were pretty equally divided between king and parliament. This made the **Cavaliers and Roundheads.** fight very long and obstinate. Those who fought for the king were called Royalists or *Cavaliers* — that is, horsemen or gentlemen. Those who fought for the parliament were nicknamed *Roundheads*, because the Puritans cut their hair so short that their heads looked round.

14. At first the king did better than his enemies. In 1642 he won the *Battle of Edgehill*, the first battle that was fought. Then he made his headquarters at Oxford, while London was the chief centre of the parliament. The north and west supported the king, while the south and east was in favor of parliament. Parties were very evenly divided, and in the early years of the struggle the king pressed parliament so hard that at last the Scots had to come to its help. In 1644 the Scots and English together won their first great victory over the king in the *Battle of Marston Moor* near York. But even after this the king won fresh triumphs. It almost looked as if some of the parliament's generals were afraid of defeating the king too completely.

15. The best soldier that fought for the parliament was a Huntingdonshire gentleman named *Oliver Cromwell*. He belonged to the same family as Thomas Cromwell, the minister of Henry VIII., and had something of Thomas Cromwell's fierce spirit, though he



England and Wales during the Great Civil War.

was a much more honorable and better man. Oliver grew very angry at the slowness and slackness of the parliamentary generals. He drew up a plan for making the army better disciplined, better paid, and better able to fight. This was called the *New Model*. By it the incompetent generals were got rid of and Cromwell himself became one of the army's chief leaders. This reform of the parliamentary army settled the fate of

Defeat of the war. In Charles.

1645 the New Model defeated Charles completely at the *Battle of Naseby* in Northamptonshire. Next year Charles found that he could fight no longer, and gave himself up to his enemies.

16. Parliament had thus beaten the king. Even during the fighting

Quarrel of the army and parliament. Charles's enemies had not agreed very well. Now

that they had gained the day, they began to quarrel fiercely both as to how

England should be governed and how the Church was to be ruled. In this dispute it was soon found that the Long Parliament took one side, while the New Model army took the other. The quarrel of parliament and the army made both of these anxious to win the king's support. Charles listened to both, but proved true to neither. Once more it was seen that the king was a man whose word no one could trust.



Soldier armed with a Pike.

(From a broadside, printed circa 1630.)

17. The army soon got the better of parliament. They had force on their side, and it was natural that they should win. The triumph of the army made Cromwell, the most trusted of the generals, ^{The execution of} the chief man in the country. He severely ^{Charles I.} blamed the king for his treachery and deceit, and demanded that he should be tried as a traitor to the nation. He drove away from Westminster all those members of parliament who would not agree to this. Those who were left, who were called *The Rump*, set up a *High Court of Justice*. This court condemned Charles to death, and on January 30, 1649, his head was cut off before his own palace in London. Charles died so nobly and piously that many of those who had distrusted him felt sorrow and pity for his cruel end.

Summary. Charles I.'s affection for Buckingham and his methods of raising money for wars bring him into conflict with parliament, which presents the Petition of Right. The ship-money, the rule of Laud and Strafford, and the war with the Scotch lead to the Civil War between Charles and Long Parliament. On the latter's side Cromwell with his New Model overcomes the king, who is finally executed.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Find out from some other history if Wentworth was always on the king's side. Why did the judges decide against Hampden? When was the principle that there should be no taxes without the consent of parliament first set forth? Who had set up an English Church in England independent of the Pope? Who first had the English Book of Common Prayer made? What other English kings had lost the throne by action of parliament?

The Army of Charles: Reid, Capt. M., *The White Gauntlet*.

Naseby: Pickering, E., *The Dogs of War*.

The Civil War: Church, A. J., *With the King at Oxford*; Lee, Mary and C., *Rosamond Fane*.

Laud: Lyall, Edna, *In Spite of All*.

Hampden: Lyall, Edna, *To Right the Wrong*.

Incidents of the War: Henty, G. A., *Friends Though Divided*; Marryat, Capt. F., *The Children of the New Forest*.

Parties: Edgar, J. G., *Cavaliers and Roundheads*.

End of the War: Yonge, C. M., *The Pigeon Pie*.

Execution of Charles: Dumas, Alex., *Twenty Years After*.

Books for Teachers. (See Chapter XXI.); Hutton, W. II., *Laud*; Traill, H. D., *Strafford*; Gardiner, S. R., *History of England from 1603 to 1642*; *History of the Great Civil War*.



A Twenty-shilling Piece of Charles I. Struck at Oxford A.D. 1643.

CHAPTER XXVIII

The Commonwealth, 1649-1660

1. The Rump now voted that England should have no more kings, but should be henceforth a *Commonwealth* or Republic. They abolished the House of Lords as well as the Monarchy, so that the House of Commons became the only thing in the state that was left. The rule of the Rump.

2. The fighting was not yet over. Though England was entirely in the hands of the Rump, the Scots called upon the dead king's eldest son, *Charles, Prince of Wales*, to become their king as The conquest of Ireland. Charles II. Besides this, Ireland mostly declared for the young king. The Irish Catholics had been in revolt for some years. They had no love for the English Church, but they were still more afraid of the Puritans. The result of all this was that the New Model had to conquer Scotland and Ireland before its task was really over. The soldiers did not find much difficulty with this work. In 1649 Cromwell invaded Ireland, and before long made himself absolute master of the whole island.

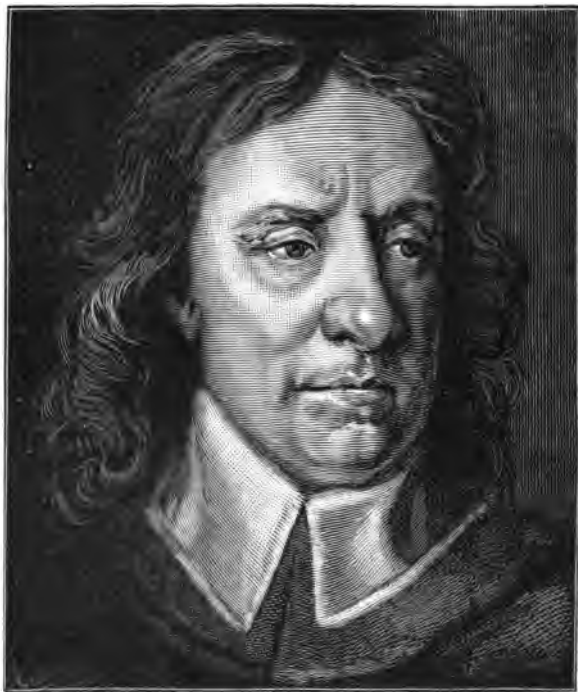
3. In 1650 Cromwell attacked Scotland, and defeated the young king at the *Battle of Dunbar*. Next year Charles made a desperate effort to invade England. Cromwell pursued him closely, The conquest of Scotland. and beat him utterly at the *Battle of Worcester* in 1651. This was the last fighting that was necessary. The King of Scots managed to reach France after various hairbreadth escapes. All the three king-

doms were now in the power of Cromwell and his Puritan soldiers.

4. Cromwell soon quarrelled with the Rump of the Long Parliament. He wanted it to give up its power and allow fresh elections to be held. But the Rump was afraid to do this, and preferred to hold on to the government as long as it could. At last Cromwell lost patience. In 1653 he went down to parliament and turned out all the members. Thus the army and its general put an end to the House of Commons as well as to the king, the House of Lords, and the old Church. The army now alone remained. But the soldiers did not like it to be thought that the three kingdoms were ruled by the sword alone. The officers therefore drew up a new plan for the government of England. The country was still to be a commonwealth; but there was to be a single person to act as chief ruler, with the title of *Lord Protector*. Cromwell was made Protector, and with this title he governed England until his death.

5. Cromwell now showed that he was as wise as a statesman as he had been as a general. He strove hard to end the troubles which the civil wars had caused. He ruled the country justly, but he was very stern against all who disobeyed him. He quarrelled with his parliaments as much as Charles I. had done, but he was much more rough in putting down their opposition than the weak king had been. He formed all sorts of plans for the improvement of the country. He was not content to have parliament represent England and Wales only, but summoned Irish and Scotch members to his parliaments. He tried to settle the Church question by giving liberty to all sorts of Puritans to worship as they chose. He would not, however, allow members of the English Church or Roman Catholics the same freedom

to follow their consciences. He was afraid of extending liberty to these Churches, because he knew that they were friends of the young King of Scots. Cromwell's rule was not generally liked. The English royalists,



Oliver Cromwell.

most of the Scotch and Irish, and all members of the English Church and Roman Catholics hated it. Many of Cromwell's own Puritan friends now fell away from him, since they thought he was becoming a sort of king, and they detested monarchy of all sorts. Indeed, before his death Cromwell was offered the title of king by his parliament. He refused to accept it, be-

cause he knew that by doing so he would give much offence to the republican soldiers whose swords had won for him his power.

6. The best side of Cromwell's rule is seen in his dealings with foreign powers. Since Elizabeth's days England had lost most of its influence abroad. Cromwell now revived its old glory.

He defeated the Dutch and thereby increased English commerce. Like Elizabeth, he joined France against Spain. France was now ruled by *Louis XIV.*, the most powerful of its later kings. Cromwell and Louis won victories over the Spaniards both by sea and land. He took the West Indian island of *Jamaica* from the Spaniards, and it has remained English ever since. Even Royalists, who hated Cromwell as the murderer of their king, admired him for his vigor and success against the Spaniards.

7. Oliver died in 1658. His son, *Richard Cromwell*, was made Protector in his stead. Richard was a lazy and foolish fellow, who did not care at all to be the head of the state. He quarrelled with the army, which soon drove him from power. The army did not know what to do when it had got rid of the Protector. At last it brought back the Rump of the Long Parliament to power. The army and the Rump, however, soon began to quarrel again, just as they had done before Cromwell became Protector.

8. Every one was now tired of the rule of the Rump and the army. It was soon seen that the only way to put things right again was to bring back the king, but no one knew how that was to be done. At last the lead was taken by *General Monk*, the commander of the troops in Scotland. He marched to London, and found that every one wanted to get rid of the Rump and restore the king. He therefore insisted that a new parliament should be

Fall of
Richard
Cromwell.

Monk
restores
Charles II.

chosen, which was to decide what was to be done in the future. This parliament met in 1660, and at once asked the son of Charles I. to return to England and take up the government. On May 29, 1660, which was his birthday, *Charles II.* entered London. Thus



A Coach of the Middle of the Seventeenth Century, about 1650.

was brought about what was called the *Restoration*. Everybody rejoiced that the rule of the soldiers and Puritans was over, and that the king had come back to his own again.

Summary. After subduing Ireland and Scotland and driving Prince Charles from the country, Cromwell dismisses the Rump Parliament. He is made Lord Protector and carries on the government well at home and abroad, but when he dies his son Richard is too weak to govern, and Prince Charles is called back by General Monk.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. What other great generals were good rulers? What rulers of England had had wars with Ireland and with Scotland? What were the results?

Conquest of Ireland: Brereton, F. S., *In the King's Service*.

Cromwell and Prince Charles: Scott, W., *Woodstock*.

Prince Charles: Green, E. E., *After Worcester*.

Cromwell: Barr, A. E., *The Lion's Whelp*; *Friend Olivia*.

Books for Teachers. Firth, C. H., *Cromwell*; Morley, J., *Cromwell*; Gardiner, S. R., *Cromwell's Place in History*; *History of the Commonwealth and Protectorate*.

CHAPTER XXIX

Charles II., 1660-1685, and James II., 1685-1688

1. *Charles II.* was by far the ablest of the Stuart kings. Brought up in exile and in poverty, he had learned many useful lessons during those hard days. He understood Englishmen better than his father had done, and was willing to let them have some of their own way so long as they were willing to keep him as their king. But he was selfish, extravagant, lazy, and pleasure-loving. He set a very bad example to his subjects, which many of them followed too faithfully. There was soon a great deal of grumbling. Yet Charles was so shrewd, good-natured, and witty that he never altogether lost his popularity.

Character of
Charles II.

2. King and Parliament set to work together to make things once more as they had been before the Civil War. Cromwell's army was broken up. A few regiments, however, were kept under arms, and these regiments were the beginning of England's modern "standing army." Cromwell's union of England with Scotland and Ireland was given up, and both Scotland and Ireland got back their own Parliaments. In Scotland bishops were restored in the Church. The Presbyterians were badly treated. The English Church was made what it had been before the Rebellion, and the Prayer-book and bishops were brought back. The Puritans were now very unpopular, and few people cared what became of them. Many of the Puritans ceased to be members of the Church, and set up separate churches of their own. They were called *Dissenters*,

The results
of the
Restoration.

because they "dissented" or disagreed with the Church. Their lot was a very hard one. They were not allowed to build chapels of their own or meet together for worship. Parliament, which before the Civil War had been on the side of the Puritans, now passed many harsh laws against the Dissenters.

3. In some things Charles II. tried to follow in Cromwell's footsteps. He kept up friendship with France as Cromwell had done. Charles, however, could not hold his own against Louis XIV. Before long he began to take bribes from the French king and made with him the *Secret Treaty of Dover* against the Dutch. Moreover, Louis XIV. was now so powerful that Englishmen were growing afraid of him. All these things made the French alliance unpopular in England.

4. Charles II. was as careful as Cromwell to protect English commerce and colonies. He fought two wars against the Dutch, England's chief rival on the sea. As time went on, the English took away from the Dutch much of their trade. Later the Dutch and English became better friends, as they both had to join together against Louis XIV. In one of the wars against the Dutch, England captured *New Amsterdam*, the chief Dutch colony in North America. The English now gave it the name of *New York*, in honor of the king's brother, the Duke of York. Other new colonies were also set up in America. One of them was called *Carolina*, after Charles himself, and another *Pennsylvania*, after its founder, William Penn.

5. Two heavy troubles fell upon London during the reign of Charles II. In 1665 there broke out a pestilence, called the *Great Plague of London*. This was a terrible disease, which spread rapidly in the badly drained, crowded lanes of the old city. The doctors did not know how to cure those

The French
alliance.

Commerce
and colonies.

The Plague
and Fire of
London.

who caught the plague, and so many people died of the disease that they had to be buried in great pits, which held hundreds of bodies. Next year (1666) another disaster befell London. This was the *Great Fire*, which burnt down a large part of the city. Many beautiful old buildings were destroyed, and among them



Old St. Paul's on Fire.

the old Cathedral of St. Paul's. Some good, however, came from the fire, for the town was rebuilt in a more healthful fashion. The streets were made broader, and the houses were built of brick instead of wood.

6. Ever since the Restoration the Roman Catholic Church had been very busy in England. The harsh laws passed against the Roman Catholics in earlier times were still in force. They were, however, not carried out nearly so strictly as they had been. A large number of important persons turned Roman Catholics. The chief of these converts was *James, Duke of York*, the younger brother

**The Test
Act.**

of Charles II., and the next heir to the throne on the king's death. Charles himself cared very little about religion; but if he believed in anything, he believed in the doctrines of the Catholics. He tried more than once to give toleration both to the Catholics and to the Protestant Dissenters. Parliament was against this, and refused to allow any toleration. In 1673 it passed a law called the *Test Act*, which prevented Roman Catholics from holding any office. Men remained very jealous and suspicious of the Roman Catholics for many years, and were willing to believe anything that was said against them.

7. In 1678 a story arose that the Catholics had formed what was called the *Popish Plot*. A knavish clergyman

The Popish Plot.

of the English Church, called *Titus Oates*, said that he had discovered that the Catholics had formed a plot to kill Charles and make the Duke of York king in his stead. Oates was an unblushing liar, and the stories he told were quite untrue; but people were in such a state of panic about the Roman Catholics that nearly everybody believed him. Other wicked men followed Oates's example. It was now a very paying business to tell tales about the Popish Plot. Any scoundrel who wanted money and fame had only to invent a new story to become popular. All England soon became wild with excitement. Many innocent Catholics were sent to the scaffold on the lying evidence of Oates and other informers.

8. The shrewdest statesman of these days was the *Earl of Shaftesbury*. He had once been one of the king's ministers, but had been driven from power,

The Habeas Corpus Act and the Exclusion Bill.

and was anxious to get office again. He was very unscrupulous, and did not much care what he did if he could get what he wanted.

He now took advantage of the panic excited by the Popish Plot to win influence for himself. For the next two or three years he could do what he pleased with the

House of Commons. Some of the laws which he persuaded Parliament to pass were wise. The best of them was the *Habeas Corpus Act* of 1679, which made it harder for the Government to shut up innocent people in prison. The law which Shaftesbury was most anxious to pass was one for preventing the Duke of York from becoming king after Charles II.'s death. This was called the *Exclusion Bill*, and the reason it gave for excluding the duke from the throne was that he was a Roman Catholic. The Exclusion Bill was passed by the House of Commons, but the king put an end to parliament for the time in order to prevent the Bill being brought before the House of Lords. All through this period Charles II. showed great prudence. He let Shaftesbury have a good deal of his own way; but Shaftesbury was so violent that people began to be disgusted with him. Gradually the panic against the Roman Catholics died away. Men began to see that Oates had been telling them lies. When parliament met again the House of Lords rejected the Exclusion Bill.

9. England was now divided into two parties, one for Shaftesbury, the other against him. Shaftesbury's friends were called *Whigs*, while his enemies were called *Tories*. It looked for a time as if there would be civil war between them; but Shaftesbury had gone too far, and so the Whigs lost ground. At last Shaftesbury fled to Holland, and died there. For the rest of Charles II.'s life the Tories remained in office.

10. Disgusted at losing power, some of the fiercer Whigs formed a plot to kill the king. This was called the *Rye House Plot*, because it was hoped to shoot the king as he rode past a house called the Rye House, which belonged to the conspirators. The plot was soon discovered, and the chief leaders of it put to death.

Whigs and
Tories.

The Rye
House Plot
and fall of
the Whigs.

11. Charles II. died suddenly in 1685, and the Duke of York became King *James II.*, despite the Exclusion Bill. The new king was much duller than his brother, and had many of the faults of his father, Charles I.; but he remained steadfast in his devotion to the Roman Catholic Church. He had run the risk of losing the throne rather than give up what he believed to be true. Now that he had become king, he saw that he owed his throne to the support of the Tories, who were mostly Protestants. He said that he would let the Protestant Church go on as it was, provided that he was allowed liberty to worship God after his own fashion. For a short time everything went well. Charles's Tory ministers were kept in office, and James ruled by their advice. When parliament met it strongly supported the new king.

12. Unable to win power by other means, some of the Whigs started a revolt against James. Their leader was the king's nephew, the *Duke of Monmouth*. James put down the rebellion at the *Battle of Sedgemoor* (1685), in Somerset, the last pitched battle fought in England. Monmouth was put to death, and his followers were very cruelly treated.

13. James now began to adopt a bolder policy. He thought it very unfair that Roman Catholics should be kept out of all offices by the Test Act, and asked parliament to repeal that law. Parliament refused, thinking that the Test Act was more than ever necessary under a Catholic king. James then set to work to get round the law in all those indirect ways which Charles I. had been so fond of. He claimed what was called a *Suspending Power*, — that is, a right of stopping the carrying out of any law if he were so minded. By virtue of this suspending power, he practically put aside the Test Act and many other laws against

Early days
of James II.

Monmouth's
rebellion.

The suspend-
ing power.

Roman Catholics. He filled the army and navy with Catholic officers. He appointed Roman Catholics to be his chief ministers, and even gave them offices in the Protestant Church. At last he issued what he called a *Declaration of Indulgence*, — that is, he declared that he



King James II.

(From a Picture in the National Portrait Gallery.)

would suspend all the laws which prevented men from worshipping God after their own fashion.

14. James hoped to join the Roman Catholics and the Protestant Dissenters together in an attack on the English Church. He was now clearly aiming at overthrowing the English Church and making himself a despot. The Protestant Dissenters were as much afraid of Rome and of despotism

General op-
position to
James.

as the members of the English Church. Before long all sorts of Protestants joined together to save the liberties of England and the Protestant religion.

15. James was an old man, and till now his next heir had been his daughter, the *Princess Mary*. She was a good Protestant, and had been married to her cousin, *William, Prince of Orange*, the chief ruler of the Dutch Republic, and the leading Protestant in all Europe. Now a son was born to James. This child would be brought up a Catholic, and it looked as if the line of Roman Catholic kings would go on forever. This was more than the English could endure. Some leading men of both the Whig and Tory parties met together, and agreed to invite the Prince of Orange to come over to England and save the country from King James. William promised to do this, and landed in Devonshire on November 5, 1688, the anniversary of the discovery of the Gunpowder Plot. He at once marched to London. James found that no one would fight for him, and ran away to France. A parliament met, and declared the throne vacant. Then it offered the throne to William and Mary, who accepted. Thus was brought about what Englishmen long called the *Glorious Revolution of 1688*. It ended the long struggle of king and parliament that had begun with the accession of James I. It ended it by driving out the king, who had tried to set himself up against his people, and by making a new king by Act of Parliament. Parliament thus defeated the crown, and became the strongest power in the English state.

Summary. Charles II. restores to England the institutions existing before the Civil War, and persecutes the Dissenters. He takes New York from the Dutch. The Plague and Fire of London. The Catholic faith of Charles's brother James leads to the Test Act, Popish Plot, the Exclusion Bill of Shaftesbury, the Whig and Tory quarrels, and the Rye House Plot. Habeas Corpus Act

the most important of the reign. James II.'s accession to the throne disputed by Monmouth. Acts of tyranny by James cause his expulsion and the coming of his son-in-law, William of Orange.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Why were the Puritans so called? In whose reign did they first become important? Were the people who came over in the "Mayflower" Puritans? At what other time had there been a great plague in England? What is meant by toleration? What right was assured to Englishmen by the Habeas Corpus Act?

The Plague: Hoare, E. N., *The Brave Men of Eyam*; Defoe, Daniel, *Journal of the Plague Year*.

The Fire: Henty, G. A., *When London Burned*.

Popish Plots: Scott, W., *Peveril of the Peak*.

Rye House Plot: Rowsell, M. C., *Traitor or Patriot*.

Monmouth's Rebellion: Green, E. E., *In Taunton Town*; Doyle, A. C., *Micah Clarke*; Besant, W., *For Faith and Freedom*.

The Revolution of 1688: Yonge, C. M., *The Last of the Cavaliers*; Macdonald, R., *The Sword of the King*.

Story of the Times: Lee, M. and C., *The Oak Staircase*.

Books for Teachers. Airy, O., *The English Restoration* (Longmans' Epochs); Hale, E., *The Fall of the Stuarts* (Longmans' Epochs); Taylor, W. F., *England under Charles II.*; Traill, H. D., *Shaftesbury*.

CHAPTER XXX

William III., 1689-1702, and Mary II., 1689-1694

1. *William III.* was a grandson of Charles I., and Queen *Mary II.* was a daughter of James II., but they did not reign because of their royal descent.

William and Mary made king and queen by parliament. They reigned because they were asked to do so by parliament. Parliament, however, was careful not to break away from the ordinary line of succession any more than it could help.

This was the reason why it made Mary share the throne with her husband. We always call the king's wife the queen, but it is only in Mary's case that we call the reign after the queen's name as well as after the king's. The reason is that Mary was made a reigning queen, like Elizabeth and Victoria. It was not simply because she was the king's wife that she bore the royal title.

2. Parliament now passed some laws to prevent any future king from acting as James II. had done. The chief of these was called the *Bill of Rights*.

The Bill of Rights and the Toleration Act. It declared that no king had a right to a suspending power such as James II. had claimed. It also said that Roman Catholics

should not be allowed to rule in England. By other laws it was arranged that if William and Mary died without children, the next ruler should be Mary's younger sister, *Anne*. If *Anne* died without children, *Sophia, Electress of Hanover*, and her Protestant descendants were to succeed to the throne. *Sophia* was a granddaughter of James I. She was chosen because

she was the nearest Protestant relative of the king and queen. It is by reason of this law that all English kings and queens, who have reigned from this period down to the present day, have had a right to rule. Another law of the same time was the *Toleration Act*, which



William III.

gave the Protestant Dissenters a right to worship freely in their own chapels.

3. Unlike the Stuart kings, William III. obeyed the law strictly, and was forced to govern in a fashion that pleased parliament. William did not like this, as he was fond of power. He was not, however, able to help himself. Parliament only gave him enough money to carry on the government from year to year. If he had ruled in a

Beginning
of party
government.

way parliament did not like, it could always stop supplies, and so make him helpless. One result of this growing power of parliament was that William was gradually forced to choose all his ministers from the party that was strongest in parliament. At first William chose some Whigs and some Tories to be his ministers. But a Whig parliament so disliked William's Tory ministers that they forced him to dismiss them from office, and keep no ministers except Whigs. When, a few years later, the Tories got the majority in parliament, William was forced to have none but Tory ministers. Thus began what is called "party government" in England, which has lasted ever since. Its result was to hand over to parliament a great deal of the power the kings had had up to that time.



The Position of the Boyne.

4. William III. had to fight hard before he made himself master of Ireland and Scotland. The Irish Roman Catholics supported James long after he had been driven from England. At last James himself went to Ireland and reigned there for some time. In 1690 William defeated James at the *Battle of the Boyne*, and soon drove him out of the country. Thus Ireland was once more conquered. The Catholics were punished for supporting James by being treated very badly. They lost nearly all their

The Revolution in Ireland.

land, and only Protestants were allowed to govern the country. This state of things lasted for more than a hundred years.

5. The Scots followed the example of the English, and drove James from the throne. They chose William and Mary as king and queen, and abolished bishops in the Scottish Church. Ever since that time the Church of Scotland has remained Presbyterian. Before long the *Highlanders*, who dwelt in the hills in the north of Scotland, rose in revolt in favor of James II. But after winning a battle at *Killiecrankie*, the Highlanders went home, and the friends of King William finally got the upper hand.

The Revolution in Scotland.

6. After James II. was driven from England, he got much help from Louis XIV. of France. William III. had already been struggling against the power of France for nearly twenty years. He now persuaded the English to declare war against Louis. For eight years the English and French went on fighting. This war, known in Europe as the *War of the Palatinate*, was called in America *King William's War*. - England was not very successful on land, but gained a complete victory over the French at sea at the battle of *La Hogue*. At last peace was made at *Ryswick*. This war cost so much money that William was not able to pay for it year by year. He had to borrow money for this purpose and pay interest upon it. This was the beginning of the *National Debt*.

The war against France.

7. Queen Mary died in 1694. She was much more English and more beloved than William. William was a very able man, but he took no pains to understand English ways, and the English people disliked him. He became so unpopular that many attempts were made to bring back his father-in-law to the throne. James II.'s friends were now called *Jacobites*. This word comes from *Jacobus*,

William III. and the Jacobites.

the Latin for James. Louis XIV. still supported James II., and when he died the French king recognized his son as James III. This made William and the English so angry that they made ready to fight Louis again. Before anything could be done William III. died, in 1702.

Summary. Parliament makes William and Mary king and queen, passes the Bill of Rights, the Toleration Act, and an act regarding the succession to the throne. The party in power, Whig or Tory, controls the king's power. William defeats the rebellious Irish under James II. at the Boyne and also subdues Scotland. He defeats France at La Hogue and starts a national debt. The Jacobites try to put James back on the throne.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. What other Queen Mary had ruled England? What was the suspending power? Do we have a State Church in the United States? Is everybody here allowed to believe in any religion he chooses? Do we have political parties in the United States? Name them. Do you know what name was applied to the Irish who fought on William's side at the Boyne? Have we a national debt?

Character of Queen Mary II.: Marshall, E., *Kensington Palace*.

Marriage of Mary to William; Paull, M. A., *My Mistress the Queen*.

The Boyne: Henty, G. A., *The Orange and the Green*.

The Scotch War: Crockett, S. R., *Lochinvar*.

The Jacobites: Marryat, Capt. F., *Snarleygow or The Dog Fiend*; Weyman, S. J., *Shrewsbury*.

Book for Teachers. Traill, H. D., *William III.*

CHAPTER XXXI

Anne, 1702-1714

1. Queen *Anne* was kind and good-natured, but not very gifted. Had she really had to govern the country, she could hardly have done it very well. She was ruled, however, by her great friend *Anne and Marlborough*, the *Duchess of Marlborough*, whose husband, the *Duke of Marlborough*, was the chief general England then had. This was very lucky, for war with France was just beginning, and Marlborough was by far the best man to manage the affairs of England. For several years he was both general of the army and chief minister.

2. The war that was now fought was called the *War of the Spanish Succession*, but was known in America as *Queen Anne's War*. Louis XIV. wished to make his grandson *Philip* king of Spain. The War of the Spanish Succession. England, Holland, Austria, and many other states joined together in what was called the *Grand Alliance* in order to prevent him. Their chief reason for doing this was that they were so much afraid of the power of France that they did not wish France and Spain to be joined together.

3. During this war Marlborough won many famous victories over the French. The first of these was at *Blenheim*, in Germany, in 1704. Marlborough's victory was the more brilliant, since the French had won nearly every battle they had fought all through the long reign of Louis XIV. Marlborough's victories. Afterwards Marlborough won three battles in the Neth-

erlands: at *Ramillies*, at *Oudenarde*, and at *Malplaquet*. Another great gain of the English in this war was the capture of the rock of *Gibraltar* in the south of Spain. Gibraltar has remained English ever since. However



Queen Anne.

(After a Portrait by John Closterman in the National Portrait Gallery.)

hard the English fought, they could not drive Louis' grandson out of Spain, because nearly all the Spaniards supported him.

4. The war was very bloody and costly. Before long people began to wonder why peace was not made. In

particular the Tories became very anxious to end the war. Marlborough had always been a Tory, but he was so eager to go on fighting that he threw over his old friends and joined the Whigs. His ministry, which had been Tory, thus became Whig. But the Whigs made the mistake of continuing the war longer than was necessary. Soon a great cry rose for peace. The Tories got a majority in

The Tory
ministry and
the Treaty
of Utrecht.



Map of the Netherlands to illustrate Marlborough's Campaigns.

parliament, and drove Marlborough from office. Anne was now quite willing to get rid of Marlborough, because she had quarrelled with his wife, whose overbearing ways the queen had at last got tired of. The Tories remained in office for the rest of Anne's reign. The chief thing they did was to make peace with France.

This they did in the *Treaty of Utrecht*, which was signed in 1713. Though they were in such a hurry to make peace that they did not make as good terms with the



The Position of Gibraltar.

French as they might, this treaty gave England many advantages. It recognized Philip as King of Spain, though it gave England Gibraltar. In America France gave up to England the Hudson's Bay territory, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland.

5. A great event of

Queen Anne's reign was the union between England and Scotland. Though England and Scotland had had one

**The union
with Scot-
land.**

king since 1603, each country was still governed after its own fashion; except in Cromwell's time, both countries kept a separate parliament. This did not work well, and the English and Scots disagreed so much that there was a prospect even of a union of the crowns coming to an end. Queen Anne's ministers proposed that the parliaments and governments of the two countries should be united, so that there might be less chance of Englishmen and Scots quarrelling. Both countries consented to this, and in 1707 the *Act of Union* was passed. Henceforward there were no longer separate English and Scottish parliaments. A single parliament of Great Britain sat at Westminster. In this Scotland was represented both in the House of Lords and in the House of Commons. It was, however, agreed that Scotland should keep her own Presbyterian Church. The union was not popular at first in either country, but it was a wise measure, and turned out in the long run to be a great success.

6. Queen Anne had married Prince *George of Denmark*. All her children had died before her, and Anne herself was now in very poor health. The old Electress Sophia of Hanover died about this time, so, according to law, the next king would be her son, *George, Elector of Hanover*. George was a great friend of the Whigs, and the queen's Tory ministers felt sure that if he became king

The last
years of
Queen
Anne.



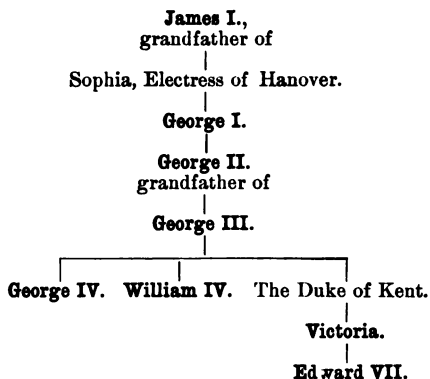
The Battle of Blenheim.

(From an Engraving after a Picture by La Guerre at Marlborough House.)

he would drive them from power. *Lord Bolingbroke* was the most brilliant but the least honest of the Tory statesmen. He formed a plan for securing the throne for Anne's brother, the son of James II., whom most Englishmen called *The Pretender*. However, before his plans were ready, Anne suddenly died. The Elector of Hanover was now proclaimed George I. without oppo-

sition, and Bolingbroke had to flee the country. Thus Queen Anne was the last of the House of Stuart. Henceforward the *House of Hanover* reigned in its stead.

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE HOUSE OF HANOVER.



Summary. Marlborough, Queen Anne's chief general and adviser, engages in the War of the Spanish Succession against France and wins many victories, but is put out of power after a time and the Peace of Utrecht is made. The Act of Union abolishes the Scotch Parliament and gives representation to Scotland in the English Parliament. Failure of Bolingbroke's plan to have Anne's brother succeed her instead of George, Elector of Hanover.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Whose daughter was Anne? Why did parliament let her ascend the throne and reject her father? Did Ireland have its own parliament?

Marlborough: Henty, G. A., *In the Irish Brigade*; *A Cornet of Horse*.

Blenheim: Burton, J. E. B., *Across the Salt Seas*; Southey, R., *After Blenheim* (poem).

War in Spain: Henty, G. A., *Bravest of the Brave*.

Life in Queen Anne's Reign: Green, E. E., *Tom Tufton's Travels*; *Tom Tufton's Toll*; Thackeray, W. M., *Esmond*.

Books for Teachers. Morris, E. E., *The Age of Anne*; Seeley, J. R., *The Expansion of England*.

CHAPTER XXXII

Period of the Stuart Kings, 1603-1714

1. It must always be remembered that the early Stuart kings did not try to get more power than their predecessors the Tudor kings had had. It was parliament which tried to deprive them of powers which the Tudor sovereigns had been exercising for more than a century. It was this which brought about the Civil War. James and his successor supported their claims to power by advancing a very old doctrine called the *Theory of the Divine Right of Kings*. According to this theory the king had his power from God, was responsible to Him alone, and the people had nothing to do with it. Parliament and Cromwell put an end to this theory for a time, but when Charles II. came back he put a man to death for asserting that kings were responsible to their subjects. James II. was exiled because he tried to put the theory of Divine Right into practice again, and when William and Mary came to the throne the power of the king was finally and definitely restricted by two documents called the *Bill of Rights* and the *Act of Settlement*. By the first of these the king was not allowed to suspend or dispense with any laws, to levy taxes, or to have a standing army without the consent of parliament; by the second the king was prevented from filling offices with foreign friends, from pardoning men impeached by parliament, and from removing judges from office at his own will.

2. Parliament, which had been so weak under the Tudors and called to meet so seldom, now began to

assert its power. By the *Great Protest* of 1621 it declared that it was entitled to freedom of debate; by the *Petition of Right* of 1628 it declared against Parliament. taxation or the borrowing of money by the king without the consent of parliament; and by the *Grand Remonstrance* of 1641 it summed up what it con-



Soldier with Musket and Crutch: from a broadside printed about 1630.

(Showing the absence of almost all armor.)

sidered to be its own rights and privileges and those of the citizens of England. In 1641 by the *Triennial Act* it declared that parliament should be summoned at least once in three years. As a result of the Civil War and of the Revolution of 1688, parliament became supreme over the king, and with few exceptions has continued to maintain its supremacy down to the present day.

3. The *Courts of Star Chamber* and *High Commission* established by the Tudors, now become mere engines of despotism, were abolished by parliament in 1641 be-

cause of the tyrannical purposes for which they were used. The right of an imprisoned man to the *writ of habeas corpus* was so frequently violated by the king that in 1679 parliament passed the *Habeas Corpus Act*. By it a man who was seized and cast into prison might be brought before a judge within a short time to find out what charges there were against him and who his accusers were. **Justice.**

4. The Anglican Church established by the Tudors, which persecuted Roman Catholics, Puritans, Separatists, Scotch Presbyterians (the last were also called *Covenanters* because they agreed to a certain document called a *Covenant*), and all others who did not belong to that Church, was as much a cause of the Civil War as was the tyranny of the king. During the Commonwealth the episcopacy of the Anglican Church was abolished and the presbyterian system set up in its place, but when Charles II. returned the old system of church government was restored. James II. tried to bring back the Roman Catholic Church, but his deposition stopped that, and the English Established Church, or Anglican Church as it is called, remained the State Church. Church affairs had great influence on political parties. In the Civil War the Cavaliers were generally staunch members of the Episcopal Church, whereas the Roundheads were usually Puritans, Separatists, and Presbyterians. In time the Cavaliers became the Tories, and the Roundheads became the Whigs. The former still remained members of the Anglican Church, but many of the latter were *Dissenters*. **Church.**

5. Agriculture, which had been in such a poor state during the Tudor period, began to be profitable again when carried on with improved implements on large farms. To get these farms the important landholders still resorted to the *enclosure system*, and small farmers, or *yeomen* as they were called, ceased **Agriculture.**

to exist as a class and became poorly paid agricultural laborers. Agriculture, however, was not always profitable, for under Charles II. importation of grain was forbidden, and in 1688 a bounty was paid for its export — both



Mowing Grass in the Eighteenth Century.

(From Hearne's '*Ectypa Varia*,' 1737.)

measures being designed to make the raising of grain more profitable. These acts were the beginning of the famous *Corn Laws* of England.

6. Commerce with foreign lands was the field in which England made her greatest progress during this period. Various trading companies such as the Levant Company and the East India Company made very large profits. In 1651, to encourage English commerce and destroy the monopoly in trade which the Dutch had enjoyed, parliament passed the *Navigation Act* providing that no foreign goods should be imported in any but English ships, or ships of the country from which the goods came. This aimed a deadly blow at what is called the *carrying-trade* of the Dutch.

7. The export of raw wool, which for centuries had been gradually declining, was in 1660 prohibited. England now used all her raw wool to manufacture cloth. This was now even dyed in **Manufac-
tures.** England and no longer sent to Flanders to the Flemish dyers. The cloth, however, was not made in large factories such as we know, but was made by hand-loom in the workman's home. This way of manufacturing was known as the *domestic system*. Between the workman and employer there was very little difference in social position, for they were well known to each other and the employer like the workman worked with his own hands. Thousands of workmen made cloth on their own account and sold it to dealers, who marketed it at home or abroad at the great *fairs*.

Summary. James I. preaches the *Divine Right of Kings* theory, but it is overthrown by parliament forever in 1688. Parliament becomes the supreme power in the land. The tyrannical courts of the Tudors are overthrown. The Habeas Corpus Act is passed. The growth of religious and political parties. The decline of the yeomen. Commerce and manufactures grow rapidly.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. When did enclosures begin? Find out from the dictionary what "corn" means in England. Explain the meaning of the word "presbyterian." Who were the Tudor sovereigns?

Books for Teachers. (See 'Suggestions,' p. viii. — Feilden and Cheyney.) Montagne, F. C., *Elements of English Constitutional History*; Gibbins, H., *Industrial History of England*.

PART VII. — THE HANOVERIAN KINGS. 1714–1904

CHAPTER XXXIII

George I., 1714–1727

1. *George I.* was more than fifty years of age when he became king. He knew nothing of England, and never even learned the English language. No one cared much for him, but Englishmen made him their king, as the only way of keeping out the Pretender. Under his rule the ministers could do almost what they liked, and so the system of Party Government which had begun with William III. became fully established. The Tories lost their power and popularity. Both under George I. and his son, George II., none but Whigs became the king's ministers.

2. The friends of the Pretender were much disappointed at the peaceable accession of George I. In 1715 they stirred up a rebellion against the new king. Nothing much came of this in England, but a serious revolt broke out in the *Highlands of Scotland*. In those days the Highlanders lived quite a different life from that of the rest of the Scots or Englishmen. They were divided into *clans*, or great families, and each of these clans was ruled by a chieftain. They cared nothing for the law, and were often fighting with each other or uniting to plunder the people of the Lowlands. When the mass of Englishmen and Scots had ceased to care for the Stuarts, the

Highlanders still remained their friends. They were splendid soldiers, and their fierce charge often threw the slow-moving regular soldiers of those days into utter confusion. In 1715, however, the Highlanders had a poor leader in the *Earl of Mar*. Before long the Pretender himself went to Scotland. But he was so dull



George I.

(From a Picture in the National Portrait Gallery : painted after Sir G. Kneller.)

and desponding that he killed all enthusiasm for his cause. The disgusted Highlanders went home, and the Pretender quickly returned to France.

3. Ever since the Peace of Utrecht the country had been very prosperous. Men were making much money in trade, and were looking out for good ways of getting a high interest for their savings. A great many people put their money into a company called the *South Sea*

Company. This company had been started to trade with South America, and soon flourished greatly. Its success encouraged other companies to try to get people to buy their shares. Some of these companies were mere swindles, and were soon found out. Then there followed a panic. The price of shares in all these companies went down suddenly. A great many people were ruined, and the whole country was plunged into deep distress. The *South Sea Bubble*, as it was called, had been blown out so big that it had burst. This happened in 1720.

4. Some of those ruined by the South Sea Bubble found out that the king's ministers had been bribed by the South Sea Company. A great outcry rose against them, and they were driven from office. *Sir Robert Walpole* was now made chief minister. He took such wise measures that the panic was soon at an end. He remained in office for more than twenty years. Long before his rule came to an end George I. died suddenly, in 1727.

Summary. The Whigs being responsible for George I.'s accession to the throne keep control of the government. The Pretender's friends stir up a revolt in Scotland, but it does not succeed. The South Sea Bubble causes a financial panic, but Walpole comes to the rescue.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Who was the Pretender? What was the Peace of Utrecht? Where is the South Sea? What language did George I. speak?

Jacobite Plots: Scott, Sir W., *Rob Roy*.

Jacobite Revolt: Adams, H. C., *In the Fifteen*.

Jacobites: Poynter, H. M., *Madamscourt*.

Days of George I. and II.: Yonge, C. M., *Love and Life*.

South Sea Bubble: Ainsworth, W. H., *The South Sea Bubble*.

Books for Teachers. Morris, E. E., *The Early Hanoverians*; Morley, J., *Walpole*.

CHAPTER XXXIV

George II., 1727-1760

1. *George II.* was a thorough German, but he knew more than his father about England. Before he became king he had been jealous of Walpole. He was now wise enough to see that Walpole was the best man to be his chief minister, and kept him on in office. Walpole soon won so strong a position that all the other ministers were forced to obey him. He was the first ruler who was called *Prime Minister*. As long as Walpole remained in power he kept England at peace. Walpole was a very prudent statesman. Under him the people became so contented with the House of Hanover that the Jacobites had no chance of bringing back the Pretender. As Walpole grew old, however, there was a great outcry for war against Spain. The merchants complained that the Spaniards would not let them trade freely with the Spanish colonies in South America. Very unwillingly Walpole gave way to their clamor, and in 1739 declared war. He took little pains to carry it out vigorously. The outcry against him was renewed, and in 1742 he was driven from office.

2. Before Walpole's fall the war with Spain had grown into a war with France also. The struggle was called the *War of the Austrian Succession*. England supported the claim of *Maria Theresa*, a young girl, to the Austrian throne, while France and other powers wanted to divide her dominions between them.

3. One result of the war was that the Jacobites again rose in revolt against the House of Hanover. James, the Old Pretender, was still alive, but the real leader of the Jacobites was now his son, *Charles Edward*, called the *Young Pretender*. Charles Edward was good-looking, bright, and enthusi-



Sir Robert Walpole.

(From the Picture by Van Loo in the National Portrait Gallery.)

astic, and a much better leader of men than his melancholy father. In 1745 he landed in the Highlands. The Highlanders gave him a hearty welcome, and he was soon master of nearly all Scotland. His progress was the more rapid since most of the British army was abroad, waging war against the French. Those soldiers sent out against him fought very badly. At the battle

of *Preston Pans*, near Edinburgh, King George's troops ran away disgracefully from the fierce rush of the Highlanders' charge.



George II.

(From the Portrait by Thomas Hudson in the National Portrait Gallery.)

4. The Young Pretender saw that his best chance of succeeding was to be bold. He now invaded England, hoping to march to London and drive King George from his throne. He advanced through Cumberland, Lancashire, and Derbyshire, as far as *Derby*; but very few of the English joined him, and he dared not proceed further south. He retreated rapidly to Scotland, and was soon driven to the extreme north. At last, in 1746, he was defeated by the king's second son, the *Duke of Cumber-*

The march to
Derby, and
the Battle of
Culloden.

land, at *Culloden Moor*, near Inverness. The Highland revolt was now cruelly put down by Cumberland, who behaved so brutally that people called him the butcher. Charles Edward escaped to the Continent. He lived for many years more, but soon lost all influence. On his death, and that of his brother, the unfortunate House of Stuart came to an end. Henceforth the House of Hanover remained firmly established on the British throne.

5. The period after the fall of Walpole was a dull time. The Whigs continued to govern the country.

Newcastle and the Whig nobles Most of the Whig leaders were great noblemen or landlords. They cared very little about the common people, and wanted to make as few changes as they could. They kept themselves in power by bribery. Yet, with all their faults, they did not govern the country badly. They were clear-headed, sensible men of business, but there was nothing noble or inspiring about them. A good example of this class of statesmen was the *Duke of Newcastle*. He was a fussy, meddlesome, incompetent man. If he had not been a duke he would never have won a high position for himself. A man such as he was managed well enough in time of peace; but soon a great war was to break out, and Newcastle made it clear that he was not great enough to guide the fortunes of the country in troubled times.

6. Fortunately, England had a far greater statesman than Newcastle. This was *William Pitt*. Pitt did not belong to one of the great Whig families, **William Pitt** and was never a good man of business. He was wonderfully eloquent, high-minded, and patriotic. He was careless about money and his own interests, and had a lofty scorn for the bribers and wirepullers. He was extremely popular with the mass of Englishmen, who called him the *Great Commoner*. In a dull and

selfish age he did for English politics what was being done for religion in England at the same time by *John Wesley*, the famous founder of the Methodist movement. Unluckily, Pitt had not so much influence with the House of Commons as with the people. In those days



The Right Hon. William Pitt, Paymaster of the Forces,
afterwards Earl of Chatham.

(From a Painting by Hoare.)

the members of the House of Commons were chosen by very few electors. A great number of people had no votes for members of parliament, and many members owed their seats in parliament to the influence of great Whig nobles like Newcastle, who forced all the tenants on their estates to vote for the man they wanted. So it followed that, while Pitt had great power over the

people, Newcastle had more authority over the parliament.

7. A war now broke out called the *Seven Years' War*. It began with a struggle between the French and English for mastery in two remote parts of the world, *America and India*. We have seen how, since the days of James I., the English had set up colonies on the eastern coast of North America. These were now thirteen in number and had become very prosperous. The French had also colonies in North America. The chief of these was *Canada*, which lay along the great river St. Lawrence, while the next important was *Louisiana*, which was situated on the Lower Mississippi. The French now formed a scheme for joining Canada and Louisiana together, and thus shutting up the English on the east coast. A war, known as the *French and Indian War*, thus broke out in the backwoods of America, and the French got the better of it in all the early fighting.

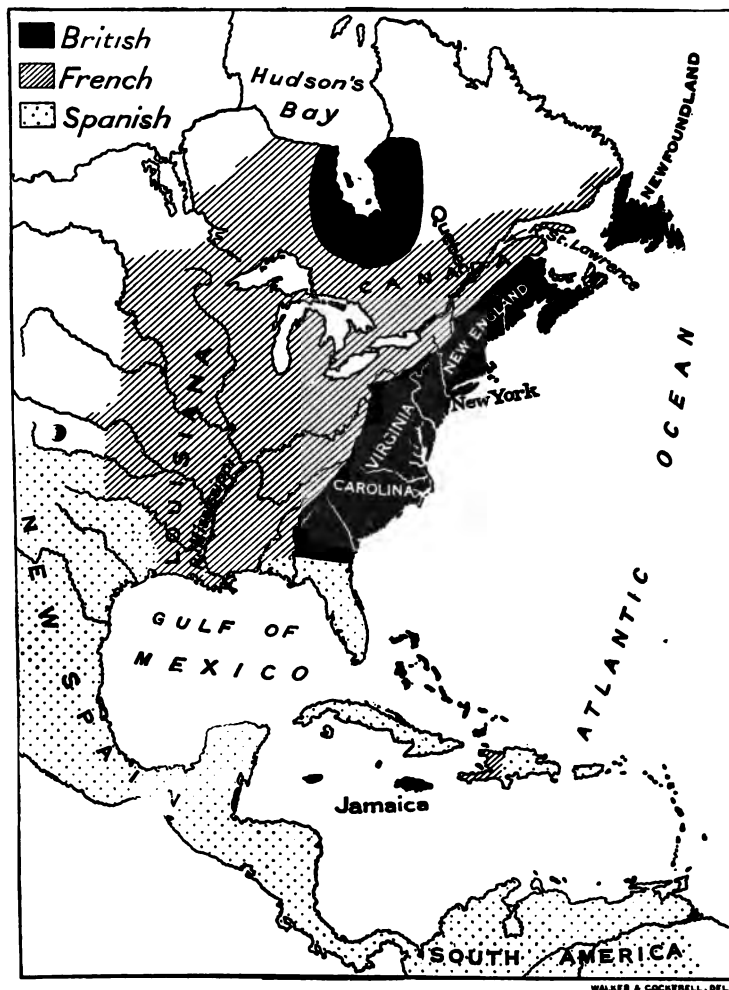
8. There was a similar struggle between the English and French in India. Up to this time India had been ruled by native princes, and the English and French only went there as traders. The French joined with the native princes against the English, and soon pressed them very hard. Their ally, the *Nabob of Bengal*, captured the English settlement of Calcutta. He shut up all his prisoners in a room called the *Black Hole of Calcutta*. In one hot night nearly all the prisoners perished from the heat and overcrowding.

9. As the result of these troubles, war broke out in 1756 between England and France. Newcastle was then Prime Minister, but was quite incompetent to carry on the war, and disasters fell upon the English in every part of the world. Newcastle made an alliance with Pitt, who

French and
Indian War
in America.

War with
French in
India.

The Seven
Years' War.



North America before the Seven Years' War (the French and Indian War).

joined with him in the ministry in 1757. Pitt's faith, courage, and enthusiasm soon changed the whole face of affairs. He had a wonderful power of choosing the

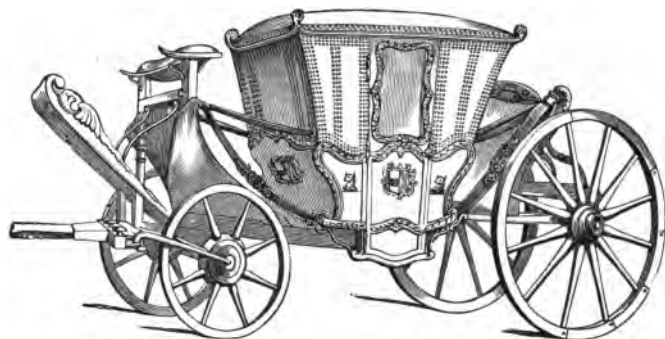


Robert Clive.

(From the Original Painting by Nathaniel Dance, R.A., at Wolcot.)

right men to lead the fleets and armies, and of inspiring them with his own belief in the greatness of England. He sent one of his favorite soldiers, *General Wolfe*, to conquer Canada from the French. In 1759 a battle was

fought outside *Quebec*, the capital of Canada. Though Wolfe was slain in the fight, the French were utterly beaten, and all Canada was soon conquered. Equal success attended English arms in India. In 1757 *Robert Clive* defeated the cruel Nabob of Bengal at the Battle of *Plassey*. All Bengal was soon subdued, and



A Coach of the Middle of the Eighteenth Century.

thus the British Empire in India began. *Warren Hastings*, who served under Clive, was made Governor General in the next reign, but was so stern in his rule that he was impeached. Thanks to the genius of William Pitt, the Seven Years' War, which had begun so badly for England, had now become the most glorious and successful war that was fought since the days of Marlborough. It was still going on when George II. died in 1760, and was succeeded by his grandson, George III.

Summary. George II. leaves the government in the hands of Walpole. The War of the Austrian Succession. The Young Pretender fails to get the throne by the Jacobite Revolt of 1745. The Whigs govern the country even after the fall of Walpole. Pitt becomes the leader of the Whigs and carries on the Seven Years' War for the sake of England's power in Europe, America, and India.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. When had Virginia, New England, and Carolina been settled? At what other times had England been at war with Spain? Find out in the dictionary what the words "Whig" and "Tory" came from.

Clive: Henty, G. A., *With Clive in India*.

War with Spain: Fenn, G. M., *In the King's Name; Ned Ledger*.

Life of the Times: Marshall, E., *The Master of the Musicians*; Fenn, G. M., *The Devon Boys*.

Jacobite Revolt: Henty, G. A., *Bonnie Prince Charlie*; Scott, Sir W., *Waverley*; Stevenson, R. L., *David Balfour*; Adams, H. C., *For James or George*.

Seven Years' War: Grant, J., *Second to None*.

Books for Teachers. Morley, J., *Walpole*; Morris, E. E., *Early Hanoverians*; Wilson, Sir Charles, *Clive*; Lyall, Sir Alfred, *Warren Hastings*; Seeley, J. R., *Expansion of England*; Macaulay, T. B., *Essays*.

CHAPTER XXXV

George III., 1760-1820

1. *George III.* was born in England, and was proud of it. He was not very quick, but he was very persevering. He wanted to enjoy as much power as the law allowed him. He saw how the Whigs under George I. and George II. had taken away many of the powers that the king had once enjoyed. For that reason he hated the Whigs bitterly, and drove them from office as soon as he could. So blindly did he dislike the Whigs that he could not see that there was any difference between Pitt and Newcastle. In fact, he was more afraid of Pitt than Newcastle, because Pitt was so much more liked by his people. He ended the war with France in 1763. He was in such a hurry to make peace that he did not win for Britain all that she might have got. Nevertheless, it was a very profitable peace for the country. By it England kept Canada and the chief power in India.

2. George's chief desire was to choose his own ministers freely. Since the Revolution of 1688 the kings had gradually been forced to take as their ministers the leaders of the party that was strongest in the House of Commons. George wished to go back to the earlier custom, and have whatever ministers he thought best. He went to work in a very clumsy way to carry out his ideas. But he took care to keep the Whigs out of office as much as he could. At last George found a minister to please him in *Lord North*, the first Tory Prime Minister since

George III.
and the
Whigs.

George aims
at choosing
his own
ministers.

Queen Anne's time. North remained in power from 1770 to 1782.



George III. in 1767.

(From a Painting by Allan Ramsay in the National Portrait Gallery.)

3. The great event of Lord North's ministry was the *revolt of the American colonies*. The Seven Years' War

had cost England a great deal, and George thought that the Americans ought to pay something towards it. He therefore had caused to be passed a *Stamp Act* in the British parliament which called on the Americans to pay certain stamp duties to the English government. The Americans were very angry at this. They said that they ought not to be taxed by the British parliament, because they sent no members to it. They raised such an outcry that the law taxing America was repealed. Before this was done grave troubles had taken place. The Americans levied troops, and rose in revolt against King George. War broke out in 1775, and immediately afterwards the Americans issued a *Declaration of Independence*. In this they declared that they would be no longer subjects of King George. The thirteen colonies all joined together, and took the name of the *United States of America*.

Revolt of the
American
Colonies.



One of the Stamps as appointed to be used under George III.'s American Stamp Act.

4. Many people in England had sympathized with the Americans when they resisted the new taxes. Among these was William Pitt, who had now become *Earl of Chatham*. He rejoiced that America had resisted George III., just as John Hampden had stood out against Charles I. The whole blame of the war, however, did not rest with George. Some of the American leaders were anxious from the beginning to be independent of England. Chatham grew very angry when he saw that the result of this was likely to be the break-up of the British Empire. He was still more indignant when France, Spain, and other old enemies of England took up the cause of the Americans and de-

Chatham
and
America.

clared war. With his dying breath he declared that the British Empire, which he had done so much to make, should not be rent asunder. After his death there was no hope that the Americans and British could remain united. When the British colonists in the thirteen states thus threw off all allegiance to the old country, the French of Canada remained loyal to King George, so that Canada still remained a British possession.

5. England had now to face both the Americans and half Europe as well. George III. and Lord North did their best against all these enemies. They were not, however, able to carry on the war with the same spirit that Chatham had shown during the Seven Years' War. For a time England even lost the command of the seas, but a great admiral arose in *Rodney*, whose victories over the French made England mistress of the ocean once more. The war in America went on badly for the mother country. Two English armies were forced to surrender to the Americans. When peace was made in 1783 England was forced to acknowledge the independence of the United States.

6. Lord North resigned office before the war was over. After a period of great trouble the king found in 1783 another minister whom he could trust. This was *William Pitt*, the second son of the great Lord Chatham. Pitt the younger was only twenty-four when George made him his Prime Minister. He was not such a genius as his father, but he was eloquent, clear-headed, and business-like. He could work with others much better than his father had done. He made himself trusted by the people as well as by the king. Now that George had made Pitt his minister he could defy the Whig lords. Pitt remained in office from 1783 to 1801, and then only resigned because he disagreed with the king.

American
independ-
ence ac-
knowledg-
ed.

The ministry
of the
younger
Pitt.

Pitt was generally called a Tory, though his views were very much like those of his father, who had always been called a Whig. With North and Pitt began a long period of Tory rule, which lasted longer than the reign of



William Pitt the Younger.

George III. Pitt's chief rival was the Whig leader, *Charles James Fox*. Fox was a fine speaker, and was good-tempered and generous. He was, however, rather too fond of his party, and had made himself unpopular by upholding the Americans. He never had such a large number of followers in parliament as Pitt had. Besides that, George disliked him very much, so that he had little chance of holding office.

7. England was changing very quickly during Pitt's ministry. For the first time it was becoming a great

manufacturing country. Till now Britain had been a land of farmers and merchants. Some wonderful machines were now invented which made it possible to make goods more quickly and more cheaply than in the days when yarn was spun and cloth woven by hand. Moreover, the steam-engine was for the first time made use of to drive all sorts of machines. Good hard roads were everywhere built, and deep canals cut. By means of these, manufactured goods could be taken easily and cheaply from the factory to the place where they could be sold. For many years things looked very prosperous. Great towns now arose wherever there was coal or iron. More money was made in England and more people lived in it. Much trouble, however, arose in consequence of all these changes. There were many more poor, and they were badly looked after. Wages were low, and many men were often out of work. Neither masters nor men in the manufacturing districts had any voice in electing members of parliament. The workmen in factories were often very miserable.

8. In 1789 the French Revolution broke out across the Channel. Up to this time France had been ruled by despotic kings, and the people had been very badly treated. At last things fell into such a desperate state that something had to be done. The French king was forced to summon a sort of parliament of his people. This body, like the Long Parliament, took everything into its own hands. It set up a constitutional government something like that of England; but the new system would not work. Before long the extreme men got to the head of affairs. They beheaded the king and queen and set up a *Republic*. Thousands of Frenchmen were put to death. A time set in so full of horrors that it was called the *Reign of Terror*. The fierce rulers of France now offered to help

The French Revolution.

all nations who wished to follow the example of the French and overthrow their kings.

9. In 1793 England went to war against the French. England and France remained at war for more than twenty years, with only one short peace of a few months. It was a most desperate struggle. Pitt was not so successful a war minister as his father, and the French gained many victories. Luckily, England was more successful by sea than by land. Her victories at sea alone prevented the French from crossing the Channel and invading England. The danger grew worse as time went on. At last the most brilliant of the French generals, *Napoleon Bonaparte*, overthrew the French Republic and made himself Emperor. He forced not only France, but nearly all Europe, to obey him. He gathered together a great army along the north coast of France, and tried hard to entice the British navy away from the Channel, so that he might cross over into England. The English fleet was commanded by *Lord Nelson*, the greatest of all English admirals. Nelson was quite able to withstand all Napoleon's tricks. At last, in 1805, he fell upon the French navy and utterly destroyed it in the *Battle of Trafalgar*, off the southwest coast of Spain. Nelson himself was killed during the fight, but he had already won the victory. From that time onward England had such complete power over the seas that she was in no serious danger of invasion.

10. A little before the Battle of Trafalgar, Pitt persuaded Austria and Russia to go to war against Napoleon. However, the French emperor was completely successful against them. At last he made an alliance with Russia. It was agreed that the Emperor of Russia should do what he liked in the East, while the Emperor of the French was allowed to do what he liked in the West. A little before this

The great
war against
France.

Napoleon's
successes.

alliance, Pitt died, in 1806, worn out with anxiety. Though he had made many mistakes, he never lost heart.



Lord Nelson.

England owes him much for the steadiness with which he kept up the great conflict against Napoleon.

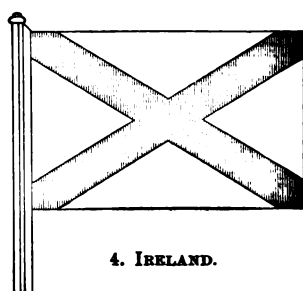
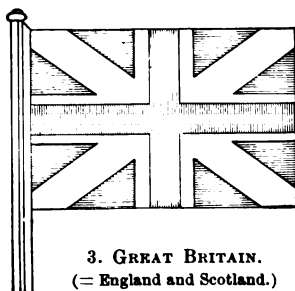
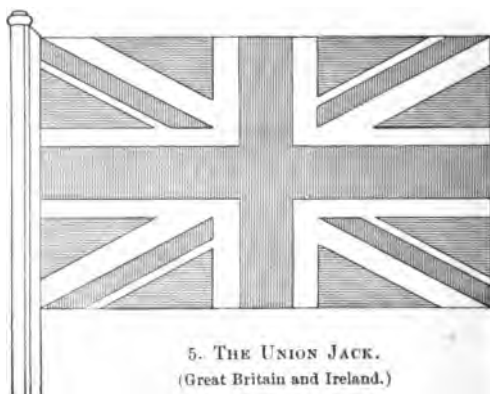
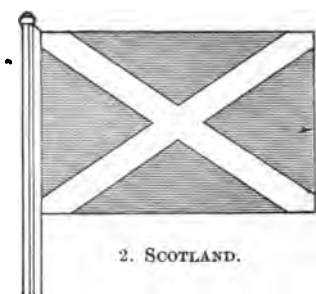
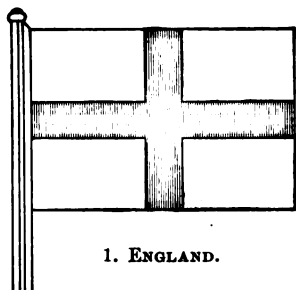
11. Pitt had to fight not only against the French abroad, but also against many people in England who

were friends of the French Revolution and of Napoleon. The new manufacturing towns in the north were full of ignorant and suffering men who wished to follow the example of the French; but Pitt put them all down with a firm hand. **Pitt prevents changes in England.**

Men called him the pilot that weathered the storm of the Revolution. England, however, was too well off to make it likely that she would act as the French had done. Unluckily, the fear of the French Revolution made men afraid to make any changes at all. Pitt, like his father, had once been in favor of reforming the way in which parliament was elected. Now, however, there was no chance of this being carried out, since so many feared that any reform would lead to revolution. Long after Napoleon had overthrown the revolutionary movement in France, people in England were still afraid of its teachings.

12. Pitt had a great deal of trouble in Ireland. Since Ireland had been conquered by William III. it had been very harshly ruled by the English. Things had become better during the reign of George III. Many of the cruel laws against the Roman Catholics were repealed, and the Irish Parliament was given greater power than it had had in earlier days. None but Protestants, however, could sit in the Dublin parliament, and none but Protestants were allowed to hold offices in the Irish government. This kept the Catholics very dissatisfied, and at last, in 1798, they rose in revolt. The rebellion was the more dangerous since England was busily engaged in fighting the French. However, it was successfully stamped out, and Ireland was once more reduced to peace. **The revolt of 1798 in Ireland.**

13. Pitt saw that it was no longer possible to allow the Irish Protestants to go on ruling Ireland as they liked. He brought forward a scheme for uniting Ireland to Great Britain, just as England and Scotland



The Union Flag.

(Showing how the flags of England, Scotland, and Ireland were combined to form the "Union Jack.")

had been united. The Irish Protestants were very angry at this, since the Dublin parliament was in their hands; but the Irish Catholics were either careless about the scheme or in favor of it. Pitt tried to win the Catholics over by promising that when the union had been carried the Catholics should be allowed to sit in parliament and act as ministers. Then he had the *Act of Union* passed in 1800. The Irish Parliament hated the plan, but was bribed into consenting to it. It now ceased to exist; but Irish peers and Irish members of the House of Commons were henceforth allowed to sit in the united parliament of the three kingdoms at Westminster.

14. Unhappily George III. prevented Pitt from carrying out his scheme in favor of freeing the Roman Catholics, which was called *Catholic Emancipation*.

The king declared that he had promised, when he had been crowned, to uphold the Protestant Church. For this reason George believed that he would break his coronation oath if he granted Catholic Emancipation. Pitt was much disgusted, and resigned office in 1801. The Catholics felt that they were tricked, and soon got to dislike the Union. But the blame of this does not belong to Pitt, but to the king. Pitt remained out of office until he was called back to power to carry on the great war against Napoleon. We have seen how he threw all his energies into this task, and how nobly he died fighting at his post.

15. On Pitt's death his old rival, Fox, became Prime Minister, despite the king's hatred of him. Fox had foolishly objected to the war against Napoleon; but when he became minister he saw that it could not be helped, and did his best to wage it successfully. Within a few months Fox followed Pitt to the grave. George soon got rid of Fox's Whig followers, and again made the Tories his ministers.

The union of
Great Britain
and Ireland.

Pitt's
resignation.

The long
Tory rule.

The Tories remained in office for the rest of George's reign. They were not so wise as Pitt had been, and their rule was not very successful, although they did good service by constantly fighting the French emperor. Master of the Continent, Napoleon wished also to be conqueror of England; but even when fighting single-handed against the great despot, Britain's command of the sea enabled her to hold her own.

16. After 1808 the British began to fight successfully against Napoleon by land as well as by sea. In that

The Peninsular War. year Napoleon had offended the proud Spanish people by making his brother, *Joseph Bonaparte*, King of Spain. The Spaniards

would not receive Joseph, and England sent an army to help them. Its general was *Arthur Wellesley*, who soon won such great victories over the French that he was made *Duke of Wellington*. From 1808 to 1814 he carried on what was called the *Peninsular War* against the French emperor. It was so called because it was fought in the peninsula which is taken up by the kingdoms of Spain and Portugal. In this war, though he gained nearly every battle he fought, Wellington was often very hard pressed by the French, and generally had to retreat after each victory. He kept up his troops' courage, and was always ready to fight again. He was the greatest English general since Marlborough.

17. In 1812 Napoleon quarrelled with Russia, and invaded that country. But when winter came he was forced to retreat, and lost nearly all his army. This Russian disaster was the beginning of the fall of Napoleon. The nations

The fall of Napoleon. that he had so long kept in slavery now rose against him, and in 1814 he was forced to resign his empire and go into banishment to the little island of *Elba*, off the coast of Tuscany in Italy. He was too restless to stay there long. In 1815 he returned to France and was re-

stored to power. All Europe had now united to put down the great despot, and armies were collecting all round France. Napoleon fell suddenly upon the army which had assembled in the Netherlands, which contained a large number of British troops, and of which Wellington was the general. After a fierce fight, Well-



The Duke of Wellington.

ington defeated Napoleon in the *Battle of Waterloo*. The French emperor was once more driven from power, and spent the rest of his life a prisoner in the small British island of *St. Helena*, in the southern Atlantic.

18. Napoleon, by his *Berlin* and *Milan Decrees*, and England, by her *Orders in Council*, had done great injury to American commerce. England had also exercised a *right of search* on American vessels and taken from

them certain sailors said to be Englishmen. As a result the United States declared war against England in 1812 and did a great deal of damage to the English navy and merchant ships. On land the war did not amount to much, being mainly on the Canadian frontier. The English were defeated in an attempt to take *New Orleans*, and the war was closed by the Treaty of Ghent in 1814 — really before the battle of New Orleans was fought.

19. George III. died in 1820, after a reign of sixty years. In 1810 he had become insane, and his eldest son, *George*, became ruler of England with the title of *Prince Regent*. On the old king's death the regent became George IV.



Napoleon's Medal struck to commemorate the Invasion of England which never took place.

(From a Cast in the British Museum.)

Summary. George III. tries to rule independently of Ministers, and loses the American colonies. England becomes a manufacturing country, and engages in war against France to preserve the balance of power and protect her own interests. Ireland revolts, and is united to England by the Act of Union. England attacks Napoleon's power in Spain, and is largely responsible for his final defeat at Waterloo. George III. is insane during the latter part of his reign, and the government is under a Regency.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. Who was John Hampden? Explain why it was that neither masters nor men in the manufacturing districts had any voice in electing members of parliament. What was the Long Parliament?

War with France and Spain: Henty, G. A., *Held Fast for England*.

War with France: "Collingwood, H.," *Log of a Privateersman*.

Sea Fights: Kingston, W. H. G., *From Powder Monkey to Admiral*.

American Revolution: Henty, G. A., *True to the Old Flag*; Kingston, W. H. G., *Hurricane Harry*.

Nelson: Eden, C. H., *Afloat with Nelson*; Henty, G. A., *At Aboukir and Acre*; Kingston, W. H. G., *The Fire Ships*.

Nelson at the Nile: Pickering, E., *In Press Gang Days*.

Peninsular War: Fortescue, J. W., *The Drummer's Coat*; Henty, G. A., *The Young Buglers*; *With Moore at Corunna*; *Under Wellington's Command*.

Waterloo: Henty, G. A., *One of the 28th*.

Life of the Times: Clarke, Mrs. H., *A Lad of Devon*; Marshall, E., *Bristol Diamonds*; *On the Banks of the Ouse*.

Schools: Adams, H. C., *School Days at Kingscourt*.

Machinery Troubles: Henty, G. A., *Through the Fray*.

Books for Teachers. Rosebery, Lord, *Pitt*; Russell, C., *Nelson*; Hannay, D., *Rodney*; Hooper, G., *Wellington*.

CHAPTER XXXVI

George IV., 1820-1830, and William IV., 1830-1837

1. *George IV.* was a bad man and a feeble king. One good thing came from his weakness. He was not persevering enough to keep in his hands the power which *George III.* had won back for the Crown. The consequence was that the ministers again became appointed by parliament rather than by the King.

Character of
George IV.

2. The Tories remained in power all through the reign of *George IV.* The Tories were not, however, all of the same mind. Most of their chief ministers were opposed to all reforms, but some of the Tories had learned the more liberal teaching of *William Pitt*. Their leader was the brilliant *George Canning*, who gradually obtained a large share of power. A great many useful and wise changes were then carried out by *Canning* and his friends. *Canning* was instrumental in getting President *Monroe* of the United States to issue a message in which were embodied the principles of the now famous *Monroe Doctrine*. It was to the effect that the American continents had ceased to be fields for European colonization or interference. *Canning* soon died, and then power went to the Duke of Wellington, who, like *Marlborough* before him, was a prominent statesman as well as a famous soldier.

George
Canning.

3. *Wellington* was very old-fashioned in his notions, and had been no friend of *Canning* and the Liberal Tories. He had always opposed Catholic Emancipation,

while Canning, like Pitt, had been in favor of it. A great outcry now arose in Ireland in favor of giving the Roman Catholics equal rights with the Protestants. A very vigorous and able Catholic Irish lawyer, named *Daniel O'Connell*, put himself at the head of this agitation. At last it

Catholic
Emanci-
pation.



George IV.

(From an unfinished Portrait by Lawrence in the National Portrait Gallery.)

looked as if the Irish Catholics would rise in rebellion if their claims were not granted. Wellington knew what a terrible thing war was, and thought it better to give the Catholics what they were asking for than run the risk of provoking a revolt. In 1829 he carried through

an Act of Parliament which allowed Roman Catholics to sit in parliament and become the king's ministers.

4. George IV. died in 1830. As he had no children, his brother William became King William IV. Just before George's death the first *railways* worked by steam-engines were opened for traffic. Steam-engines had long been used for pumping and for working machinery.

They had now been employed for about twenty years for making ships travel independently of the wind. Now the *locomotive steam-engine* was invented, and soon became as important as the *steamship*. The first really important railway was that between Liverpool and Manchester, which was opened in 1830. Railroads and steamships soon became very common. They made it easier, quicker, and cheaper to move passengers and goods from one place to another. Britain was the place where they were first largely used. They enabled the country to take even a greater share in the trade of the world than it had gained already in the days of the younger Pitt.

5. *William IV.* was a good-natured and well-meaning king, though he was not very wise, and was very undignified. The great event of his short reign of seven years was the *reform of parliament*. Though everything in England had changed so much, the House of Commons was still elected as it had been hundreds of years before. Each English county returned two members, whether it was large and rich, or small and poor. Many great towns, such as Manchester and Birmingham, did not send members to parliament at all, though many very small places returned two members each. The worst of these were called *rotten boroughs*, and some of them were not even villages. Very few people had votes at elections, and the new manufacturing districts

The need
for reform
of parlia-
ment.

were hardly represented at all. Ever since the beginning of George III.'s reign there had been a cry for parliamentary reform, and both of the William Pitts had supported it. For a long time, however, people were so afraid of the French Revolution that they feared to make any changes at all, lest moderate reforms should pave the way to an English Reign of Terror.

6. Under George IV. the Whigs took up the cry for parliamentary reform. Wellington, the Prime Minister, said that things were best as they were. But the country had long been in a bad state, **The Reform Bill passed.** and many people believed that everything would go right if reform of parliament were granted. After William became king the Whigs once more became the larger party in the House of Commons, and drove Wellington from power. Thus ended the fifty years of Tory rule. The Whigs became ministers. In 1832 they carried through the first *Reform Act*. This famous Bill abolished the rotten boroughs, gave members to all the great towns, and increased the number of members in the larger counties. The number of voters became much larger, though the reformers were afraid to give votes to many workingmen. The Bill cut down the power of the landlords and gave great authority to the middle classes.

7. The Whigs remained in power for the rest of William IV.'s reign. They carried out many other useful reforms besides the Reform Bill. By one **Abolition of negro slavery.** of these new laws all slaves within the British Empire were set free. Up to this time the sugar plantations in the English colonies of the West Indies had been tilled by *negro slaves*, who had been stolen from their homes in Africa and sold to masters, who forced them to work for them. Thirty years before this the *slave-trade*, as it was called, had been abolished, and those who brought fresh negroes from

Africa were severely punished. Now the negroes themselves were made free men.

8. Before William IV. died the Whigs had got quite tired of making changes, and the people were beginning to lose faith in them. The Tories had made themselves very unpopular by opposing parliamentary reform. They now had a very honest and prudent leader in *Sir Robert Peel*, a Lancashire manufacturer's son. He cleverly took advantage of the mistakes of the Whigs, and gradually won over the support of the new voters. As the name Tory still had an evil sound, because of what it had meant before 1832, Peel called himself and his followers *Conservatives*. The Whigs also began to drop their old name, and preferred to be called *Liberals*. They were still in office when William IV. died in 1837, and was succeeded by his niece, Queen Victoria, the daughter of his brother, the Duke of Kent.

Summary. George IV. is a feeble king. The Tories under Canning and Wellington control the government. Catholics are allowed to sit in parliament and be king's ministers. Steamships and railways are introduced. The Reform Bill is passed and negro slavery is abolished. The Whigs take the name of Liberals, and the Tories that of Conservatives.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. When had the Catholics lost the right to sit in parliament and to be king's ministers? What American invented the first steamboat? Review those portions of the book which relate to parliament.

Sea Fights: Henty, G. A., *With Cochrane the Dauntless*.

Reform Agitation: Marshall, E., *Under the Mendips*; Lawson, E. M., *Through Tumult and Pestilence*.

Life of the Times: Marshall, E., *In Four Reigns*.

Books for Teachers. Macarthy, J., *Epoch of Reform*; Hooper, G., *Wellington*; Thursfield, J. R., *Peel*.

CHAPTER XXXVII

Victoria, 1837-1901

1. Queen *Victoria* was only eighteen years old. She was very anxious to do what was right, and worked hard at fitting herself for her great post. She had inherited some of the firmness of her grandfather, George III., and took good care that her influence as queen should be felt. She married her cousin, *Prince Albert*, who proved a good and loving husband, and a wise counsellor to her. She carefully kept herself above parties, and had all the more power because she had no private ends to serve, but devoted herself to the welfare of her people. All through her reign the people were steadily winning more power in the government of the country. Yet they had such trust in the goodness of the queen that they regarded her with great affection, and were glad she was the head of the British State.

The Queen
and Prince
Albert.

2. The state of the country was much disturbed in the early years of the queen's reign. In Ireland there was a great outcry against the Union. O'Connell, who was still the chief Irish leader, headed in Parliament a party called *Repealers*, who demanded a repeal of the Union. In England the state of the people was very bad. Wages were low, and food was dear. This was all the more disappointing, since better times had been hoped for after the Reform Bill had been passed. A party now arose called the Chartists. The Chartists had great

Repealers
and
Chartists.

influence over the workmen in the towns. They drew up a plan for a more thorough-going reform of parliament, which they called the *People's Charter*. They got their name of Chartists from their demand for this People's Charter. In the end neither Repealers nor Chartists carried things as they wished.

3. One of the chief causes of the distress among the people was the high price of bread. This was due to what were called the *Corn Laws*. In England *corn* is a general term for wheat and other grains. Foreign grain was only allowed to enter the country when a heavy duty on it had been paid. The Corn Laws had been passed in order to help the British farmers, but they worked great injury to the manufacturing classes. People began to think that this tax kept the price of food so high that it did more harm than good. *Richard Cobden* and others started a society which aimed at getting rid of the tax on bread. It was called the *Anti-Corn-Law League*.

4. The Whig Government was afraid of all these movements. The Whig Prime Minister was a slack and careless man who was fond of saying, "Can't you leave things alone?" His weakness made him lose power. At last, in 1841, the Whigs were beaten at a new election. The Conservatives now drove them from power, and formed a strong ministry under their leader, Sir Robert Peel.

5. Peel remained minister from 1841 to 1846. He governed the country very wisely, and put the money affairs of the State into good order. He was rather stiff and slow, but thoroughly honest.

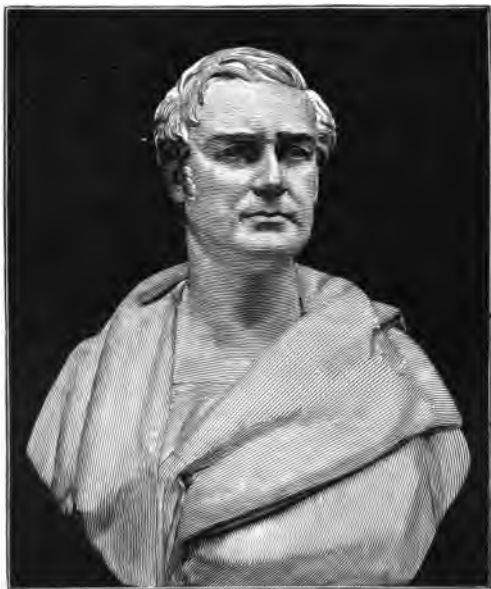
He did not mind changing his opinions if facts showed him that his views were wrong. He had always upheld the Corn Laws, but now experience taught him what distress flowed from the high price of food. A terrible disaster in Ireland proved to him

The Anti-Corn-Law League.

The Peel Ministry.

Peel and the Corn Laws.

that the high bread-tax could not be kept up. Though the Irish were crying for repeal of the Union, the real thing that made Ireland so discontented was the poverty of its people. The land was tilled by very small farmers, who paid such huge rents that they had little left to live on. They had mainly lived on potatoes, because



Sir Robert Peel.

(From the Bust by Noble in the National Portrait Gallery.)

potatoes were the cheapest food they could get. A disease of the potatoes now made them unfit to be eaten. The result was that Ireland was made miserable by a grievous famine.

6. Peel saw that food could not be taxed when millions of people were starving. In 1846 he carried through parliament an act which abolished the Corn

Laws, and brought in Free Trade in bread. The landlords and farmers had supported Peel earlier, because they believed he would keep up the Corn Laws. Now they cried out that they had been betrayed. Peel could only carry his Bill with the help of the Whigs or Liberals. Some of his old supporters opposed him very bitterly. They were called the *Protectionists*, because they believed in protecting English agriculture by duties. Their leader was *Benjamin Disraeli*, a Jew by birth, who was very clever and brilliant, but strange in his dress and ways. Soon after the repeal of the Corn Laws Disraeli joined with the Whigs and drove Peel from office.

7. It was nearly thirty years before the Conservatives again got a majority in the House of Commons. During most of this time the Liberals were in power. Their ranks were strengthened by the old Whigs being joined by those friends of Peel who had remained on his side after the revolt of the Protectionists. These were called the *Peelites*. The most important of them was *William Ewart Gladstone*, the son of a Liverpool merchant. Peel died soon after his fall from power. Gladstone was as able a manager of the nation's finance as Peel had been. He had learned from Peel to believe in Free Trade, and now proposed and carried laws which did away with most of the duties which still upheld Protection. Soon every one was for Free Trade. After a few years, quarrels among the Liberals made Disraeli minister for a short time. As soon as he came into power he too gave up his idea of Protection. He and his followers now made up the Conservative party. The Peelites joined with the Whigs to form the Liberal party. The most popular among the Whigs was *Lord Palmerston*. He was more than once minister for foreign affairs, and did much to make England respected and feared abroad.

He did not care about making many changes at home. He was easy-going and flippant, and took much less serious views of things than the grave and earnest Gladstone. Though they often sat in the same ministry, they had no love for each other.

8. Between 1854 and 1856 England was at war with Russia. She had as her ally her old enemy France, which was now ruled by *Napoleon III.*, a nephew of the Great Napoleon. Both England and France were alarmed at the progress made by Russia in the East. In particular they were afraid that Russia would conquer *Turkey*

The Crimean War.



Map to illustrate the Crimean War.

and its capital, *Constantinople*. Turkey was not like the other countries in Europe. The mass of its inhabitants were Christians, but all power was in the hands of the Turks themselves, who were Mohammedans from Asia. The Turks were splendid soldiers, but cruel and careless rulers. They treated their Christian subjects very badly, and Russia had long helped the Christians of the East against their Turkish tyrants. England and France now supported the Turks against the Russians. They sent an army to the *Crimea*, a peninsula belonging to Russia, which runs

into the northern part of the Black Sea. There the Russians had built a great fortress, called *Sebastopol*, which the allies besieged. The war that followed was called the *Crimean War*. The English and French forces were not strong enough to capture Sebastopol easily. The siege lasted all through the winter, which proved an uncommonly severe one. The generals were incapable, and the troops were shamefully neglected. The sufferings from cold, hunger, and disease were much worse than those inflicted by the Russian bullets. At last Sebastopol was captured, and peace made in 1856.

9. In 1857 a trouble even worse than the Crimean War fell upon the Empire. This trouble was called the *Indian Mutiny*. Since the days of Clive the British had gradually conquered a very large part of India. The army which upheld England's power consisted largely of *Sepoys*, or native Indian troops. In 1857 many of these Sepoys rose in mutiny, and committed all sorts of dreadful deeds. Luckily, however, some of the Sepoys remained faithful, and the few Englishmen who ruled India showed wonderful courage and skill. At last the mutiny was put down.

10. The ministers had been sadly to blame for the sufferings of the soldiers in the Crimea. They were driven from office, and lost a good deal of reputation. Palmerston alone came well out of the war. He became Prime Minister, and was nearly always in office until he died, a very old man, in 1865.

11. During Palmerston's last ministry the great *Civil War in the United States* broke out between the free states of the *North* and the slave-holding states of the *South*. The upper classes and the Government of England generally favored the South, whereas the working classes, though they

**Death of
Palmerston.**

**Civil War in
America.**

suffered most by the cutting off of the cotton supply, generally favored the North. War between the North and England almost broke out when the North seized



Benjamin Disraeli, Lord Beaconsfield.

some Southern envoys from the British steamer *Trent*. The anger of the North was aroused when the English Government allowed a war vessel (*The Alabama*), bought

in England by the South, to escape to sea, and subsequently England had to pay damages (the *Alabama Claims*) for the many ships which the *Alabama* had captured.

12. So long as Palmerston lived he kept Gladstone in check. After his death Gladstone became the real



William Ewart Gladstone.

leader of the Liberal party, and at once prepared the way for a series of great changes. Disraeli, the Conservative leader, opposed him as best he could; but Gladstone was always in office, except in 1867, when a quarrel among the Liberals gave the Conservatives a chance of holding power for a short time. Disraeli was anxious to show that he was not afraid of the people. So he caused to

Gladstone
and
Disraeli.

be passed, in 1867, the *Second Reform Act*, which gave votes to nearly all the workmen who happened to live in boroughs. However, he could not keep his power after the election.

13. Gladstone was made Prime Minister in 1868, and began to carry through a large number of sweeping reforms. He strove to make Ireland more contented by two new laws. By the first ^{Gladstone's first} he took away from the Protestant Church ^{Ministry.} in Ireland its position as a privileged State church and also a great deal of its property. This was called the *Disestablishment and Disendowment of the Irish Church*. Gladstone's second new measure was an *Irish Land Law*, which was to make the Irish farmers better off and more independent of their landlords. In a few years Gladstone had made so many changes that people began to wish to rest for a little.

14. Disraeli now had his chance. In 1874 the elections gave him a majority, and he became Prime Minister. He held office till 1880, and took great pains to make England's influence more felt ^{Disraeli's} abroad. ^{Ministry.} During these days the Russians were again at war with the Turks, and Disraeli was accused of wishing to help the Turks against the Russians. He managed to make peace between Turks and Russians, but the peace took away from the Turks a great deal of their territory. This region did not, however, go to Russia, but the Christians dwelling in it were allowed to govern themselves. Still, the Turks kept Constantinople and a large amount of land in Europe. Since that contest other wars have broken out from time to time, which show that what is called the *Eastern Question* can hardly be settled except by driving the Turks out of Europe. In the course of this war, Gladstone made very eloquent speeches against the Turks, and declared that Disraeli had done what he

could to keep up their cruel rule. The voters turned against Disraeli at the next election in 1880, and sent a Liberal majority to parliament. Gladstone was once more made Prime Minister, and the next year Disraeli died. He had shown great patience and skill in teaching the Conservatives that they must trust the people, and had done much towards promoting the greatness of the British Empire.

15. Gladstone's second ministry was a very troubled one. There were great difficulties in *Egypt*, whose ruler had become so extravagant that he had to be deposed. Now, Egypt was very important to England, because there had lately been dug a ship canal through the Isthmus of *Suez*. The way through the *Suez Canal* became the quickest road to India, and it was dangerous to England not to have control over it. The British therefore took possession of Egypt, but they soon found that they had a great many difficulties to fight against. A new trouble arose when the great region on the Upper Nile, called the *Sudan*, revolted. The rebellion became so dangerous that the Government sent *General Gordon*, a very high-minded and capable soldier, to put it down. The rebels killed Gordon, and the Government, making no attempt to punish them, left the Sudan altogether. Thirteen years later, however, the Sudan was reconquered by *Lord Kitchener*, and has since, like the rest of Egypt, been ruled by the British.

16. At home the Gladstone Government had also to meet with great difficulties. The worst of these was from a new Irish movement in favor of restoring an Irish Parliament at Dublin, and so giving Ireland what was called *Home Rule*. The Irish Home Rulers were numerous in parliament, and made such long speeches that they prevented much business being done. For a long

Home Rule
and the
third
Reform Act.

time Gladstone would not yield to their demands. The Home Rulers therefore joined with the Conservatives,



Queen Victoria.

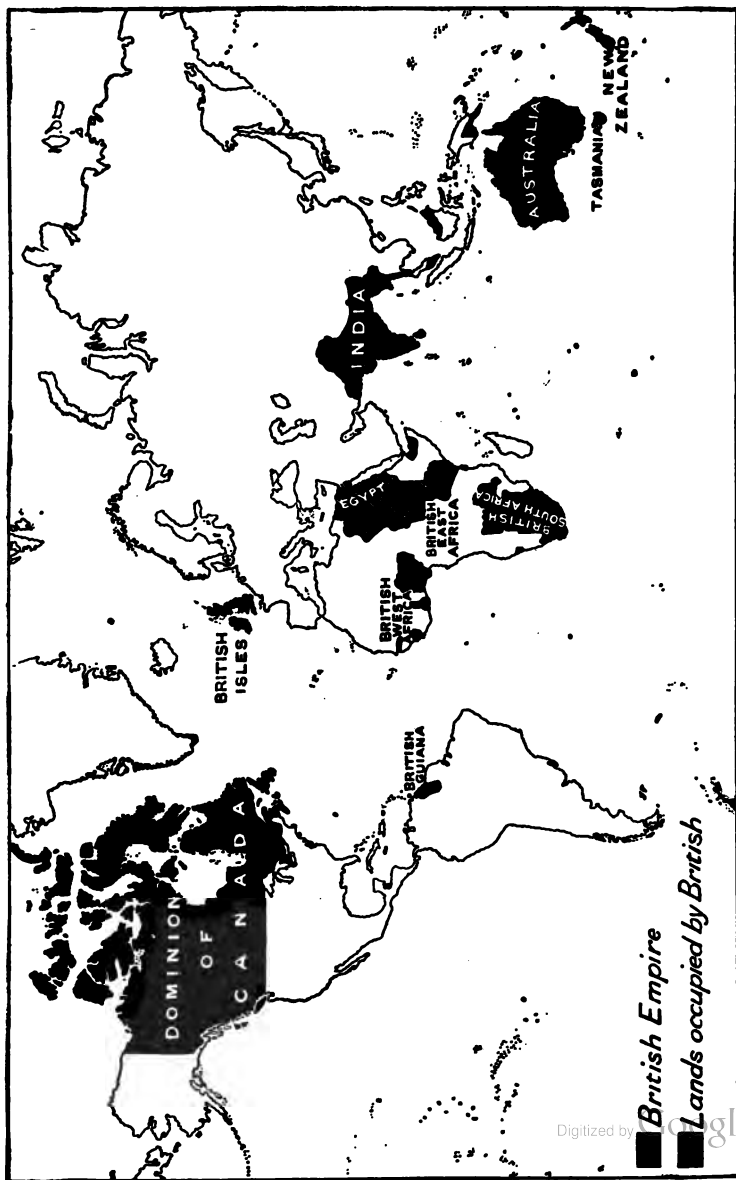
and threw him out of office in 1885. His last act was to have the *Reform Act of 1884* passed, by which parliament

was reformed for a third time. Every man who lived in a house of his own was given a vote, both in boroughs and counties. The country was cut up into districts, very roughly equal in population, each of which was to send a single member to parliament. By this Act the power of controlling the Government passed over altogether to the people of the country. So the government of the British Islands became what is called a *democracy*, or government by the people.

17. The Conservatives were now led by *Lord Salisbury*. Neither they nor the Liberals were strong enough to form a lasting ministry, and power passed quickly from one side to the other. At last, in 1886, Gladstone made an alliance with his old enemies, the Irish, and proposed to give Ireland Home Rule. Many of the Liberals were so disgusted at this that they deserted Gladstone and joined the Conservatives. These were called *Liberal Unionists*, and the foremost of them was *Joseph Chamberlain*, a Birmingham manufacturer. The party that took in both the Conservatives and the Liberal Unionists became often called the *Unionist* party. Those faithful to Gladstone were called *Gladstonians* or *Home Rulers*.

18. The country did not wish to grant Home Rule to Ireland, and Gladstone's friends were badly beaten at the elections. The Unionists therefore formed a Ministry under Lord Salisbury. This party remained in power for the rest of Victoria's reign, except for one short period. During that period Gladstone died, at a very great age. Though he failed to make Englishmen believe in Home Rule, his eloquence, courage, faith, and enthusiasm kept for him to the last a wonderful power over the hearts of his countrymen.

19. The last years of the queen's reign were very much taken up with foreign and colonial questions.



The British Empire in 1901.

Britain had to wage war in various parts of the world, and had to face the unfriendliness of many of the European powers. The two most severe of these

The Boer War.

wars were fought in Africa. One ended in the reconquest of the Sudan by Lord Kitchener, of which we have already spoken. The other was the *Boer War* against Dutch farmers called *Boers*, that is, countrymen, who disputed with England the rule of South Africa. The lands round the Cape of Good Hope had been for about two hundred years colonized by the Dutch, but during the wars against Napoleon England had taken the Dutch settlements and called them *Cape Colony*. The old-fashioned Boers did not get on well with the British settlers. Many of them left Cape Colony, and established two Boer republics, called the *Transvaal* and the *Orange River Free State*. There was constant quarrelling between the British and the Dutch, and things got worse when rich diamond and gold mines were discovered in the Boers' lands. A large number of British and other emigrants came to dig in the mines, and got on very badly with the Boers. At last a great war broke out in 1899, which was still going on when the queen died. The Boers were splendid soldiers, and fought very bravely; while the English were not well led, and suffered many disasters. It was only after the queen's death that Lord Kitchener ended the war by defeating the Boers. Thus all South Africa was made British.

20. It was not only in Africa that British rule was spread during Victoria's reign. All over the globe English colonies have been increasing in numbers and importance. Canada, which was French until the days of George II., became partly English through British settlers taking up their abode in Upper Canada. Yet the people of Lower Canada continued to speak French, and

The Dominion of Canada and the Commonwealth of Australia.

there were many quarrels between the old French and the new English settlers, just as there were be-



King Edward VII.

tween Dutch and English in South Africa. These were, however, gradually healed, and in 1867 all the British

American colonies were united in what is called the *Dominion of Canada*. Moreover, Australia, first settled in the days of the younger Pitt, suddenly grew great and rich through discoveries of gold, and also became the home of many British settlers. At first there were many independent Australian colonies, but in 1901 they were all joined together in a single state called the *Commonwealth of Australia*. Now that South Africa has again been made peaceful, it is probable that the different colonies there will also before long be united in the same fashion. Some people talk of joining together all the colonies and the mother country by still closer ties than those that exist at present. Whatever may come of this in the future, we may rejoice that recent history has proved that the colonies and the British Islands are much more friendly and willing to help each other than they have been in the past. When Britain was in difficulties in the Sudan and in South Africa, the colonies sent large bodies of soldiers to help.

21. Queen Victoria's reign was the longest in English history. She died in 1901, leaving the throne to her eldest son, *Edward VII*. The country made wonderful progress under her rule, and all who read about its history must feel how much England has done for civilization. History also shows us how many mistakes England has made, and how much better both the country and the Empire might be than they really are. History should therefore encourage all of us to try to profit by past mistakes and to improve that which is imperfect.

Summary. Victoria marries Prince Albert. The Chartists demand parliamentary reform and the Repealers demand the repeal of the Act of Union. The Anti-Corn-Law League accomplishes the Repeal of the Corn Laws. The Liberal party gets control of the government. The Crimean War and the Indian Mutiny occur in Palmerston's ministry. The American Civil War.

Disraeli carries the second Reform Act, and Gladstone accomplishes the Disestablishment of the Irish Church. Gladstone fails to get Home Rule for Ireland. England occupies Egypt. The Boer Wars. Death of Victoria and accession of Edward VII.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. When were the Corn Laws started? Do you remember any revolts in English history similar to the Chartist movement? When had India been brought under the control of England, and how? What does disendowment mean?

Victoria: Tappan, E. M., *In the Days of Queen Victoria*.

Chartism: Kingsley, C., *Alton Locke*.

Coal Mines: Henty, G. A., *Facing Death*.

Crimean War: Henty, G. A., *Jack Archer*.

Sebastopol: Henty, G. A., *The Fall of Sebastopol*.

Boer War (1902): Rousseau, V., *Derwent's Horse*.

Life in India: Kingston, W. H. G., *The Young Rajah*.

Indian Mutiny: Fenn, G. M., *Begumbagh*.

School Life in England before 1850: Dickens, C., *Nicholas Nickleby*; Hughes, T., *Tom Brown's School Days*.

School Life in England To-day: Adams, H. C., *Charlie Lucken; Who Was Philip?*

Naval Life: Kingston, W. H. G., *Paddy Tim*.

London Life: Dickens, C., *Oliver Twist*.

Books for Teachers. Oman, C. W. C., *England in the Nineteenth Century*; McCarthy, J., *History of Our Own Times; Epoch of Reform*.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

The Hanoverian Period, 1714-1904

1. This period in English history was marked by the greatest institutional changes the world has ever seen.

Changes. Since the fall of the Roman Empire the states of Europe had been small in extent; the large mass of the people had had little share in the government and very little religious freedom; and only small improvements had been made in manufactures and agriculture. In all these matters great changes took place during the Hanoverian Period.

2. By the Revolution of 1688 the kingship had really become an office in the gift of parliament. The king lost his power to veto an act of parliament and as one writer has put it, "would have to sign his own death warrant" if parliament ordered. The only real power the king has now is the influence he may exert on public opinion.

3. All the king's power has passed into the hands of his ministers, who form a *Cabinet*. A sort of Cabinet — that is, a small number of Privy Councillors of the king — existed under Charles II. It did not have much power, however, and the Cabinet as we know it only began to develop under George I. This king could not speak English well, as we have seen, and left all the business of government to his ministers, who formed a Cabinet. At the head of the Cabinet was the Prime Minister. As parliament had all the power, this Prime Minister and the other ministers

had to keep on the right side of the political party which was in control. If the good-will of parliament was lost, the Cabinet, not being able to get any bills passed, could not carry on the government. After a time it became customary for a Cabinet which lost the support of the controlling party of parliament to resign. A new Cabinet representing the controlling party was then called by the king. In order to control and lead the party in parliament the members of the Cabinet were also members of parliament.

4. By the three Reform Acts of 1832, 1867, and 1884, parliament now thoroughly represents the mass of the English people. Whatever act parliament passes is the supreme law of the land until **Parliament.** another parliament comes into power. This parliament may repeal the act of a previous parliament, and then the act ceases to be the supreme law. In England there is never any question as to whether parliament can or can not do a certain thing. There is no written constitution which lays down things which parliament may or may not do. This practically puts parliament in control of all departments of government: the executive, legislative, and judicial. Parliament, however, only represents the people, and what the people say parliament has to do. For that reason the House of Commons, which is chosen by the people, has become much more important than the House of Lords, whose members sit by right of birth. To the House of Commons alone belongs the right of *starting* all bills pertaining to the raising of money.

5. Most of England's wars in the eighteenth century were fought on account of colonial possessions. England realized that if she was to be an important nation in the world, she must have many colonies. So she kept increasing her colonial possessions in all parts of the world. Now it has been truly said that the "sun never sets on British dominions."

The
Empire.

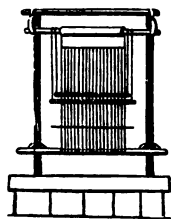
6. The greatest problem of all was to know how to govern these colonies. The common idea in early times was that they should be used in every way for the benefit of the mother country. The War of American Independence taught England a very sad and costly lesson. Having learned it, she never had to learn another. She saw that it was best to let the colonies govern themselves. So all over the world the English colonies enjoy almost complete independence. Some people think that the colonies pay England a great many taxes, but this is not true at all. The only money benefit that England gets from her colonies is that which her merchants may get through trade. The colonies pay no taxes to England. This, and the fact of their independence, keep the colonies contented, and their love for the mother country holds them united to England. In this way England has to some extent solved the problem of governing a world-empire.

7. It is very remarkable that since the fall of Rome there had been no improvements in transportation from place to place, only slight improvements in agriculture and agricultural implements, and almost none in manufactures. Weaving was still done by the old hand-loom under conditions which we have seen and known as the *domestic system*. The looms were of wood, because iron could only be got from the ore by a most laborious and expensive process. In the latter part of the eighteenth century, a series of discoveries was made by which machinery took the place of the old implements, and steam as power took the place of the hand and foot.

8. Cheap iron was needed for the machines. Iron

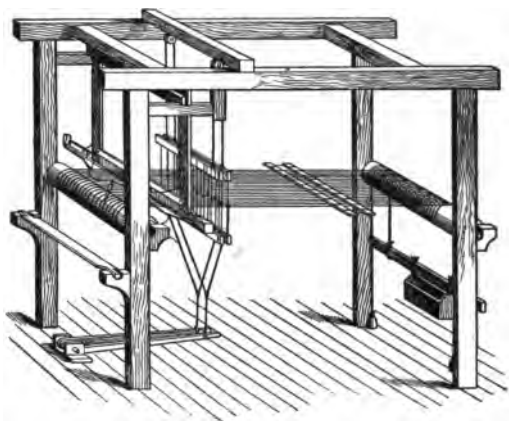
The
Industrial
Revolution.

place to place, only slight
improvements in agriculture
and agricultural implements,



Hand-loom from
Roman times.

could only be made cheap by having coal to smelt the iron ore. Coal was very difficult to get at this time because water got into the mines and men had only hand-pumps to keep them dry. In **Machinery.** 1769 a man by the name of *Watt* invented an improved steam-pump. This made cheap coal possible and conse-

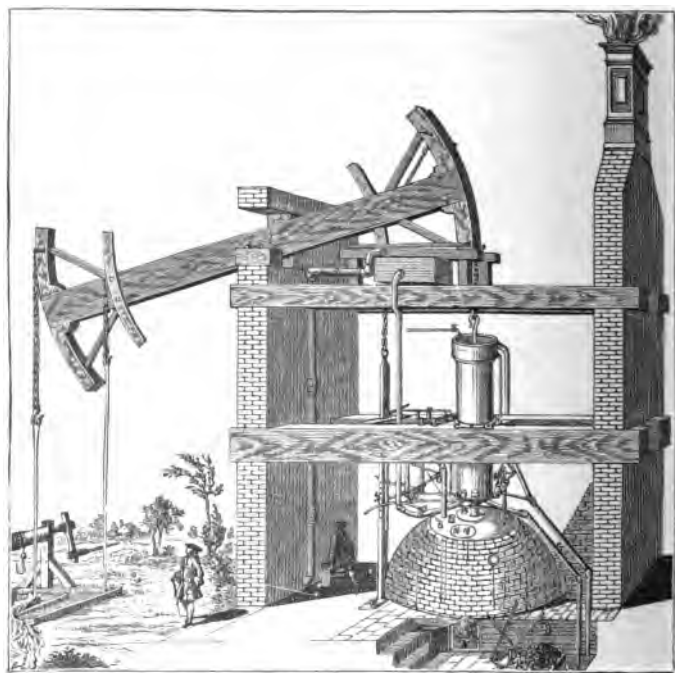


The Hand-Loom.

quently cheap iron. In 1785 the same man used steam power to turn a wheel. Thus steam could be used to run machinery.

Progress was now extremely rapid. Iron machines replaced the old wooden ones for spinning and weaving. The machinery, however, had to be near the boilers to get the steam. So workmen could no longer stay in their own homes to work, but had to gather in large establishments where many machines of one kind were gathered. These large establishments were called *factories*. The worker by hand power could not sell his goods as cheaply as those made by machinery. The result was that after 1800 the *factory system* very rapidly replaced the *domestic system*.

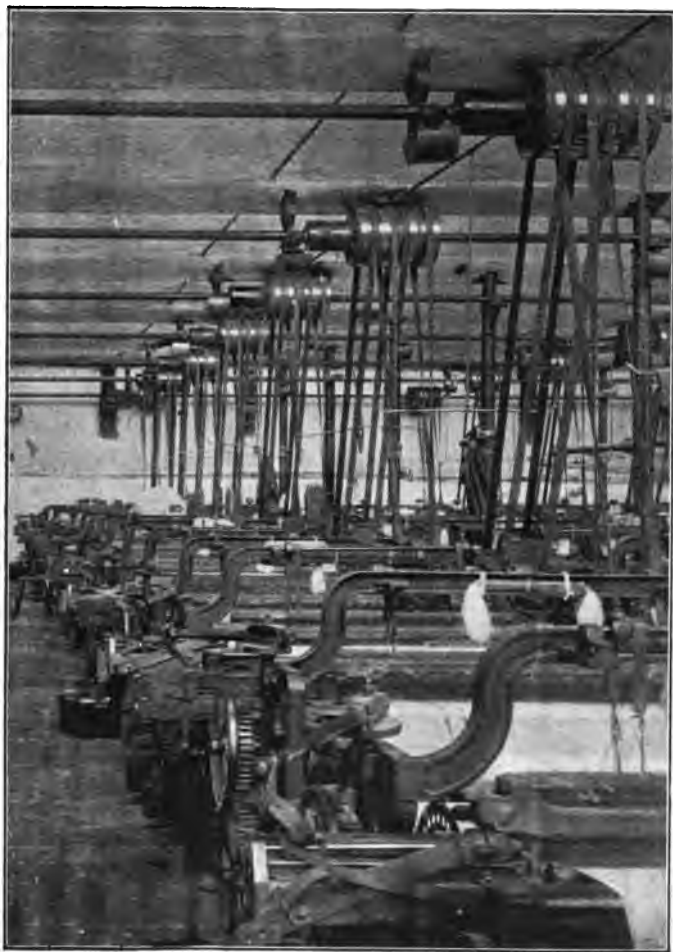
9. To run a factory a great deal of *capital* is necessary. Sometimes a very rich man puts up a factory. More frequently, however, stock companies are formed to put up the building and provide the machinery. Laborers are then employed to run the machines. The difference in social position between the man who owns the factory and the



An early form of Steam-Pump for Mines.

(From an Engraving dated 1717.)

operative who works in it has become very marked. There is no longer that good feeling between employer and employee which existed at the time of the domestic system.



Power Looms in a Factory.

10. The employer now, in order to compete with another manufacturer, and at the same time make large profits, often gives very low wages to his laborers. This has led the laborers to unite in great *trade-unions*.

**Labor
Unions.**

By means of these they have been able to force their employers to give them better wages. The object of these unions is mainly to get better wages and better conditions to work under. They give little attention to improving the quality of the article they manufacture, as the old *craft-gilds* did. Like the old *craft-gilds* the *trade-unions* try to prevent any men from working who are not members of the union, and to keep down the number of men entering the trade.

11. The employers, or capitalists as they are called, have formed combinations (trusts) to keep up the price

Trusts.

of the articles they manufacture. By this means they are enabled to pay higher wages to the workmen and at the same time to make a profit on their goods. Other capitalists have formed combinations to resist the demands of the labor unions. Between *capital* and *labor* there have in consequence been many fierce struggles. Some of the employers have tried to settle the troubles by *sharing the profits* with their employees, but this has not always proved successful. So the great struggle between capital and labor brought on by the factory system remains to-day an unsettled question.

12. After 1800 when the factories were well started the employers were only too ready to make use of any

**Factory
Legislation.**

kind of labor they could get, and under any and all conditions. The employment of women and young children was found to be a great evil, and parliament, in 1833, passed an act remedying it. This act has been followed by others, so that now the conditions of labor, especially in the great cotton mills, are much better.

13. Not in the world of manufactures alone did machinery have a great effect, but on the farm also new machines supplanted the old implements. Scythes and sickles gave way to mowers and reapers, and with these machines one man and a horse could do in a day what it had taken several men a week to do. Other machines, such as the steam threshing-machine, were also brought into use. **Agriculture.**



Threshing-Machine.

(Reproduced by permission from "Encyclopædia Britannica," Vol. I.)

14. Machinery for manufacturers would have been of little value had not some means been invented to haul coal from the mines to the great factories, to bring cotton from America to England, and to carry the manufactured articles to all parts of the world, easily, quickly, and cheaply. **Transportation.** Fulton, an American inventor, used the steam-engine to propel a boat in 1807, and in England Stevenson used it to drive his locomotive in 1825. Since those times great ocean steamships have developed and railroads have been laid in all parts of the world. Had an old Roman come to

England in 1750 he would not have found the conditions of manufacture and transportation so very different from his own times, but were he to come to-day, he would indeed find that a great *Industrial Revolution* had taken place.

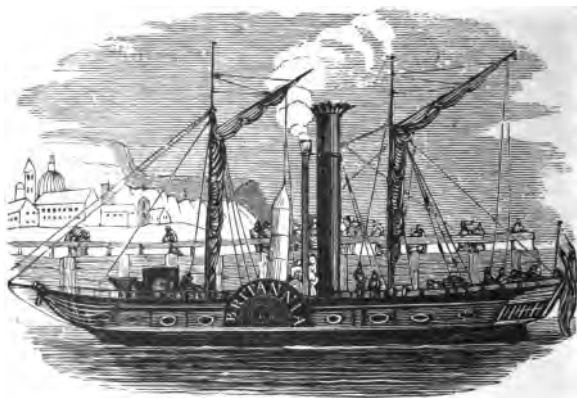
15. You have seen that before the industrial revolution the great

Electricity. problem was to get power and to use it. That power was steam. Since that time the uses of another great power have

been found — that power is electricity. This bids fair to cause an industrial revolution, even as great as that



A Roman Wagon.



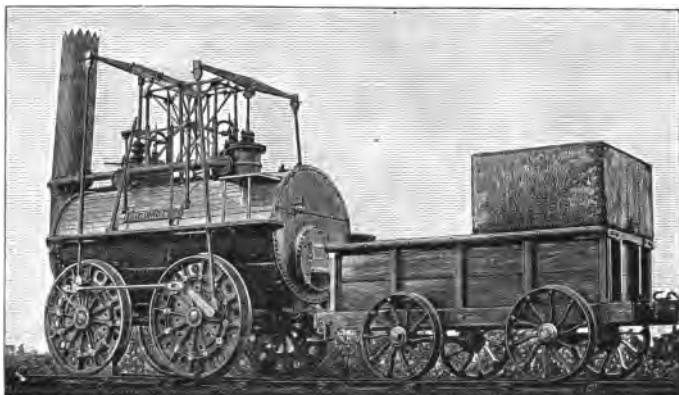
An early English Steamboat.

caused by the introduction of machinery. The great advantage that electricity has over steam is that it can be carried great distances. To run a machine, it is no

longer necessary to be near the boiler which makes the power. The possibilities of this fact are only beginning to be realized.

16. Literature also flourished greatly during this period. In the early part of the nineteenth century, *Scott* produced his great historical novels.

Later *Dickens* wrote novels on some of the **Literature.** abuses of the times, and *Thackeray* in "Pendennis" and "Vanity Fair" pictured the life of the upper and middle



An early English Locomotive.

classes of English society. In the last half of the nineteenth century *Tennyson* charmed the English-speaking world with his poetry.

17. In only one field has England lagged behind the other countries of Europe. That is in the matter of public education. It was not until very recently that the state seriously undertook the business of seeing that the nation is well educated. In earlier times, as we have seen, education was mainly in the hands of the Church. For a long time the jealousy of rival churches has been a block in the way of educa-

tional progress, but with the opening of the twentieth century there is a movement to place England on an equal footing with other countries in matters of education. When this is done, she will be in this respect, as she is in all others, in the vanguard of civilization.

Summary. Parliament, supreme over the king, exercises its power through the Cabinet. England builds up a great empire through the successful government of her colonies. Steam and machinery revolutionize the worlds of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. As a result come struggles between capital and labor, represented by trusts and trade-unions. Factory legislation. Possibilities of electricity not fully realized. Literature flourishes, but education is backward.

Topics and Supplementary Reading. What is the Privy Council? Under what kings did it begin? In a careful review of the whole book trace the history of the following: (1) The King; (2) Parliament; (3) Justice; (4) Religion and the Church; (5) Agriculture; (6) Commerce; (7) Manufactures; (8) Education.

Machinery troubles: Henty, G. A., *Through the Fray*.

Coal Mines: Henty, G. A., *Facing Death*.

Books for Teachers. (See references at the end of Chapters XXXII. and XXXVII.) Howell, Geo., *Conflict of Capital and Labour*; Cunningham, W., *Outlines of English Industrial History*.

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